34456

National Library of Canada | Bibliothèque nationale du Canada

CANADIAN THESES ON MICROFICHE | THÈSES CANADIENNES SUR MICROFICHE

NAME OF AUTHOR/*NOM DE L'AUTEUR* DAVID G. REA

TITLE OF THESIS/*TITRE DE LA THÈSE* AN ANALYSIS OF PUBLIC ATTITUDES TOWARD ACTUAL AND PREFERRED SOURCES OF EDUCATIONAL DECISION MAKING

UNIVERSITY/*UNIVERSITÉ* ~~AAA~~ ALBERTA

DEGREE FOR WHICH THESIS WAS PRESENTED/ *GRADE POUR LEQUEL CETTE THÈSE FUT PRÉSENTÉE* M. ED.

YEAR THIS DEGREE CONFERRED/*ANNÉE D'OBTENTION DE CE GRADE* 1977

NAME OF SUPERVISOR/*NOM DU DIRECTEUR DE THÈSE* DR. F. INGRAM

Permission is hereby granted to the NATIONAL LIBRARY OF CANADA to microfilm this thesis and to lend or sell copies of the film.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's written permission.

L'autorisation est, par la présente, accordée à la BIBLIOTHÈQUE NATIONALE DU CANADA de microfilmer cette thèse et de prêter ou de vendre des exemplaires du film.

L'auteur se réserve les autres droits de publication; ni la thèse ni de longs extraits de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans l'autorisation écrite de l'auteur.

DATED/*DATÉ* Oct. 21/77 SIGNED/*SIGNÉ* David G. Rea

PERMANENT ADDRESS/*RÉSIDENCE FIXE* #1609 8210-111 St

Edmonton, Alta.

NL-91 (3-74)

National Library of Canada

Cataloguing Branch
Canadian Theses Division

Ottawa, Canada
K1A 0N4

Bibliothèque nationale du Canada

Direction du catalogage
Division des thèses canadiennes

NOTICE

The quality of this microfiche is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us a poor photocopy.

Previously copyrighted materials (journal articles, published tests, etc.) are not filmed.

Reproduction in full or in part of this film is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30. Please read the authorization forms which accompany this thesis.

THIS DISSERTATION
HAS BEEN MICROFILMED
EXACTLY AS RECEIVED

AVIS

La qualité de cette microfiche dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de mauvaise qualité.

Les documents qui font déjà l'objet d'un droit d'auteur (articles de revue, examens publiés, etc.) ne sont pas microfilmés.

La reproduction, même partielle, de ce microfilm est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c. C-30. Veuillez prendre connaissance des formules d'autorisation qui accompagnent cette thèse.

LA THÈSE A ÉTÉ
MICROFILMÉE TELLE QUE
NOUS L'AVONS REÇUE

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

AN ANALYSIS OF PUBLIC ATTITUDES TOWARD ACTUAL AND PREFERRED SOURCES OF EDUCATIONAL DECISION MAKING

by

(C) David Rea

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE

DEGREE OF MASTER OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT: EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

Fall, 1977

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled An Analysis of Public Attitudes Toward Actual and Preferred Sources of Educational Decision Making

submitted by David Rea

in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education

Supervisor

Date October 21, 1977

ABSTRACT

The central problem of this study was to assess the overall attitudes of the public toward the major sources of educational decision making and to assess the extent of support for the community as a source of decision making.

The respondents were selected at random from the City of Edmonton. Each was asked to choose the actual and preferred source of decision making for each of 32 educational decisions.

The findings of the study indicated that the respondents desired a significant increase in decentralization for all of the 32 decisions. They also preferred the School as the primary source of decision making, followed by the School/Community, the School Board and the Department of Education. In general, the formal organizational structure was preferred for those decisions requiring substantial expertise and/or coordination among schools.

The findings also indicated a definite desire for increased School/Community participation in educational decision making. There was a distinct lack of support, though, for the Community as a source of decision making.

The findings of the study suggest a need to involve the community in meaningful educational decision making, especially in areas which do not require substantial expertise and/or coordination among schools. They also suggest that educational decision making authority should be retained

by educators, preferrably at a more decentralized level than at present.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my appreciation to Dr. E. Ingram and Dr. J. Fris for their help and encouragement in completing this study. Special thanks also to Sandra Harriman whose assistance has been invaluable to me.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER		PAGE
I.	INTRODUCTION TO THE PROBLEM	1
	Statement of Purpose	3
	Statement of Problem	3
	Delimitations	5
	Limitations	5
	Assumptions	5
	Definition of Terms	6
	Organization of the Thesis	6
II.	RELATED LITERATURE	8
	Examples of Community Control in North America	8
	Roots of Community Control	12
	Dissatisfaction	13
	Bureaucratization of the School Systems	15
	Desire for Lay Involvement	17
	Theoretical Models of Community Participation and Control	19
	Theoretical Models of Control Process	24
	Summary	25
III.	CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	27
	Conceptual Base for the Instrument	27
	Sources of Decision Making	27
	Authority	28
	Levels of Decision Making	32
	Dimensions of Decision Making	37

CHAPTER PAGE

Summary 38

IV. INSTRUMENTATION AND METHODOLOGY 40

Design of the Instrument 40

Defining the Sample 40

Actual and Preferred Sources of Decision Making 41

Construction of the Instrument 42

Decentralization Scale 47

Pilot Testing of the Instrument 48

Selection of the Sample 49

Distribution of the Instrument 49

Returns 50

Analysis of the Data 51

Summary 52

V. RESEARCH FINDINGS 53

Demographic Variables 53

Actual Responses 58

Preferred Responses 61

Dimensions of Decision Making 64

Levels of Decision Making 67

Other Groupings 67

Comparison of Actual and Preferred Responses . 69

Comparison of Actual and Preferred Dimensions of Decision Making 76

Comparison of Actual and Preferred Levels of Decision Making 80

Summary 81

CHAPTER PAGE

VI. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS 83

Statement of Problem 83

Summary of Results 83

Conclusions 85

Implications 87

Further Study 87

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Description	Page
1.	Saxe's Adaptation of Arnstein's Ladder of Citizen Participation to School Policy Formation	22
2.	Yates' Community and Administrative Decentralization Scale	23
3.	Typology of 32 Educational Decisions Distributed According to Dimension and Level	43
4.	32 Decisions Listed in Order of Presentation in Survey	45
5.	Frequencies - Demographic Variables	55
6.	Mean Scores on Total Preference Scale by Independent Variables	57
7.	Percentage of Actual Responses at Each Source of Decision Making for 32 Decisions	59
8.	Percentage of Preferred Responses at Each Source of Decision Making for 32 Decisions	62
9.	Comparison of Actual and Preferred Mean Scores for 32 Decisions	70

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1.	Arnstein's Ladder of Citizen Participation	20
2.	Design of the Instrument	44
3.	Percentage of Total 'Actual' Responses at Each Source of Decision Making for 32 Decisions	60
4.	Percentage of Total 'Preferred' Responses at Each Source of Decision Making for 32 Decisions	63
5.	Comparison of Preferred Dimensions of Decision Making According to Mean Scores on the Decentralization Scale	65
6.	Comparison of Preferred Levels of Decision Making According to Mean Scores on the Decentralization Scale	68
7.	Comparison of Actual and Preferred Total Mean Scores for 32 Decisions	73
8.	Comparison of Total Actual and Preferred Response Frequencies for Each Source of Decision Making	75
9.	Comparison of Mean Increases for Each Dimension of Decision Making	79
10.	Comparison of Mean Increases for Each Level of Decision Making	82

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE PROBLEM

North American education has been characterized by a gradual alienation of the school from the local community in which it functions. This has occurred as a result of two factors. The first, as pointed out by Cronin (1973) was the conscious desire on the part of the public to separate politics from the educational process. This led to the creation of the superintendancy and the subsequent development of the educational bureaucracy. The second factor has been the increased professionalization of educators and the concomitent demand for increased autonomy over certain fundamental educational decisions affecting them. The most tangible evidence of this has been the shift towards decentralization of educational decision making during the past few years.

Another more recent development has been the apparent public dissatisfaction with the educational system, especially with regard to its effectiveness in meeting the needs of the community. A natural consequence of this has been a growing desire to reestablish the community as a major source of educational decision making. This desire has been expressed in the current demands for accountability. Miller (1972:13) describes the desire for accountability as:

> ...the rarely articulated but deeply felt concern to settle the crucial question of the location of actual authority and re-

> sponsibility for deciding the purposes of the public school as these purposes are reflected in decisions relating to curriculum, school organization, the allocation of resources to various subject areas and student populations and, most profoundly, to the dominant social, political and economic ideology which is to permeate the school

A major outgrowth of accountability has been the recent trend toward community control of schools - the direct involvement of laymen in local school decision making. This has resulted in the establishment of community controlled public schools in various parts of the United States. Some of these schools have met with a high degree of success. Parsons (1970) made the following observations about thirty community controlled schools he studied:

1. There is extensive community involvement.

2. There is a extensive utilization of community resources.

3. There is a definite integration of staff and student bodies.

4. There is an attitude of partnership between professional educators and parents.

5. Academic achievement is equal or superior to that of other public schools.

6. There is evidence of decreased vandalism, eagerness to learn and improved attendance.

Other attempts at community control have not been as successful. The Ocean Hill-Brownsville case, as described by Fantini and Gittell (1969), for example, identifies a

classical confrontation between professional educators and laymen over control of decision making within a school.

In Canada, there is little evidence to show that community control has manifested itself in a direct way in the public systems. Rather, it has appeared indirectly in the following ways:

1. The proliferation of parent controlled private schools.

2. The trend on the part of educational leaders and legislators to involve the public in decision making to a greater extent.

In the Province of Alberta, this trend has culminated in the establishment of Local Advisory Councils to govern local kindergartens and Continuing Education Councils to govern adult education. These have been legislated into existence to ensure the involvement of laymen in the decision making process.

Statement of Purpose

Although it has been assumed that the public desires a greater extent of community control over educational decision making, little or no empirical research has been undertaken to establish the validity of that assumption. It was therefore, the purpose of this study to establish a research base for assessing public attitudes in this area.

Statement of Problem

The central problem of this study is to assess the

overall attitudes of the public regarding the major sources of educational decision making and to determine the extent of support for the community as a source of decision making. This may be further delineated in question form, as follows:

1. What relationship, if any, exists between the attitudes of the respondents and the following variables?

   a. Sex
   b. Age
   c. Level of educational attainment
   d. Children attending school
   e. Type of school children attend
   f. Teaching experience
   g. School decision making experience
   h. School Advisory Committee experience
   i. Kindergarten Advisory Committee experience
   j. Continuing Education Council experience
   k. Extent of school involvement
   l. Extent of community involvement
   m. Willingness to spend time in educational decision making
   n. Presence of community school in area

2. What are the overall attitudes of the respondents toward actual and preferred sources of educational decision making?

3. What relationships exist between specific decisions or groups of decisions and the various sources of decision making?

4. What is the overall attitude of the respondents toward the community as a source of decision making?

Delimitations

This study was delimited in the following ways:

1. The sample was delimited to residents of the City of Edmonton chosen on a random basis.

2. The survey was delimited to 32 decisions representing specific types of educational decisions. It was not intended to be all inclusive of educational decision making.

3. The survey measured the attitudes of the respondents only at one point in time. Various factors could alter those attitudes at a different time.

Limitations

The major limitation to this study was the relatively low return (17%). It is entirely possible that those recipients who did not respond to the survey would have voiced very different opinions than those who did. It should be noted, though, that surveys of this type generally produce a low rate of return.

Assumptions

The following assumptions apply to this study:

1. The sample chosen was representative of the population of citizens in the Edmonton area.

2. The 32 decisions chosen for this study represent the eight dimensions and four levels of decision making

upon which they are based.

3. The wording of the survey was understood by the respondents.

4. The responses adequately represented the attitudes of the respondents.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions are used for terms that appear throughout this study:

Decisions. Conclusions resulting from a choice of alternatives on the part of an individual, preferably through deliberation, calculation and thought.

Decision Making. The process of arriving at a conclusion in terms of a set of established premises.

Authority. The established right to make a decision that is accepted and carried out, primarily through the formal power structure.

Control. The extent to which decision making is monopolized.

Community. The parents or guardians of children who attend the school and other residents within the attendance area of a school.

Community control. A system of school governance which gives the community pre-eminence in decision making.

Formal organization. A system of consciously co-ordinated activities or forces of two or more persons with an established set of goals. In this study, this refers specifically to the School, the School Board and the Department of Education.

Informal organization. An aggregate of personal contacts and interactions occuring without any specific, conscious joint purpose. In this study, this refers generally to community organizations.

Organization of the Thesis

A review of the related literature is presented in

Chapter II. This is followed in Chapter III by an overview of the conceptual framework upon which the instrument was based. Chapter IV discusses the design and distribution of the instrument. Chapter V deals with an analysis of the data and presents the research findings. Chapter VI summarizes and presents the major conclusions and implications.

CHAPTER II

RELATED LITERATURE

Examples of Community Control in North America

The community control movement has manifested itself most strongly in the large urban areas of the United Sates. O'Shea (1975) suggests that in suburban areas parents achieve control through parental pressure and influence rather than through formal political control. Two of the cities most commonly referred to with regard to community control are New York City and Detroit. Cibulka (1975), utilizing Yates' typology of community and administrative decentralization, states that these two cities typify the most extensive approach to community control in the United States. Pilo (1975) traces the community control movement in both New York City and Detroit. In New York City, he states, the demand for community control began with the institution of Intermediate School 201 (I.S. 201) in a ghetto neighborhood of East Harlem. Community leaders demanded control over both the hiring and firing of teachers and curriculm development. The ensuing controversy over control led to the creation of the Bundy Panel and the subsequent decision of the Board of Education to give greater authority to local superintendents and local school boards. It also authorized the superintendents to create similar experiments in community control, two of which were Two Bridges and Ocean Hill - Brownsville. This led later to the creation of thirty local administration areas, each assigned

a district superintendent and each with an advisory lay board. He further argues that these boards are proving to be effective boundary spanning structures. In Detroit the community control movement began with the introduction of citizens' advisory committees on school needs. Further demands for community control led to the decentralization of the system into eight regions and the creation of school - community councils composed of parents, teachers, and student representatives. He concludes that systematic school system decentralization is now the dominant organizational characteristic of the public school systems of both cities. Further modification in their systems of governance, he adds, will be in the direction of greater political decentralization of community control. In contrast O'Shea (1975) argues that in practice only partial steps have been taken towards implementing community control in these two cities.

In comparing the community control movement in Chicago to that of New York and Detroit, Cibulka (1975) concludes that there has been little overall movement towards effective political decentralization. He states that in 1967 the city's schools were divided into three areas, each with an associate superintendent. The central school board, though, retained the authority for most personnel, budget, and program decisions. Later reforms included the right of local community representatives to nominate the principal, establishment of citizens' advisory councils in each of the twenty-seven

administrative districts in the city, and mandatory local school councils. The latter permitted parents and others to share in decision making and obliged the principal to make efforts to comply with community resolutions.

O'Shea's (1975) study of Los Angeles indicates that the organizational process model has dominated. Although extensive decentralization has taken place, the locus of control has not changed. Also, although elected school-community advisory councils were made mandatory in 1971, they remain advisory only.

In Canada, the community control movement has been less pronounced and less extreme than in the United States. However, the literature indicates that a definite interest in increased citizen participation in educational decision making is developing. In a survey of every school jurisdiction in Ontario by the Educational Courier (1975, Jan.:5), every school polled indicated some degree of community involvement. It was also indicated that parents were concerned about becoming involved in the educational process. Another study in Metro Toronto, by Ryan (1972), shows that sixty percent of the parents believe that parents should be involved in the planning and development of school curriculum. Durocher (1975) refers to two pieces of provincial legislation that have influenced Canadian education in recent years. The first is Quebec's Bill 27 which stipulates that a parents' committee can be attached to each school. The second is a 1975 amendment to the Ontario Education Act which allows parents

greater involvement in, and accessibility to schools. Saunders (1973) makes reference to an amendment to the Ontario School Administration Act (1969) which gives school boards authority, through permissive legislation, to establish school board advisory committees. Few boards, he argues, have availed themselves of that opportunity. He suggests that the most practical form of advisory committee is the modified de-centralized system in which an equal representation of laymen and professionals are involved in discussing, planning, and shaping school policies and programs. He further suggests the use of principals' advisory committees to initiate discussion on any educational topic, air feelings, and hear suggestions and recommendations.

There is also evidence that a number of Canadian school systems have begun to experiment with community participation and, to some extent, control. Angus (1973) describes the Ogden Community School in Thunder Bay, Ontario, and states that it is the intention of the community, the principal, and the community school director that at some point the community should take over much of the decision making relating to the school. Larson (1973) outlines the development of community participation in the Lethbridge, Alberta, school system. The mechanisms include a coordinating committee, a planning and development council, and numerous faculty councils. The coordinating committee is made up of five ATA members, three principals, four directors, the superintendent, and one or more board members. This group acts as a policy

development committee and is advisory to the board. The planning and development council is composed of ten parents, five students, one teacher, one principal and the superintendent and concerns itself mainly with long range goals of the schools and ways and means by which educational programs might better meet the needs, abilities, and interests of students. Faculty councils, adopted in 1969, are optional but encouraged by the Board. They include the principal, vice-principals, teachers, students, and parents. They concern themselves with various aspects of school goals, policies, and methods of meeting the needs of students. They are operated on a consensus basis and make recommendations to the principal. Green (1975) outlines some ways in which the Toronto Board of Education has attempted to involve the community in decision making. The arrangements used include:

1. Public discussions with representatives of a community in which a new school is to be constructed.

2. Parental input regarding criteria for administrative appointments.

3. Utilization of advisory committees to make recommendations to the board. These committees are made up of trustees, teachers, special interest people, and administrators.

4. Extensive community input in curriculum development.

Roots of Community Control

According to most writers, three major factors have contributed significantly to the present interest in community

control; 1) a growing dissatisfaction with the present school system and its achievements, 2) the growing bureaucratization of school systems and 3) the increased desire for involvement on the part of laymen.

Dissatisfaction. There is a growing body of research to indicate a substantial dissatisfaction with present school systems. A major source of dissatisfaction, especially in the United States, is the perceived inability of schools to meet the educational needs of society. Levin (1970) expresses concerns for both the black sector of American society, which has not been able to regain its status, and the white middle class, which is frustrated with empty promises, administrative rigidites, lack of responsiveness and red tape. Similarly, Fein (1971) cites the failure of integration to accomplish its original goal; that of equalizing educational opportunities for blacks. He proposes the establishment of black community schools, comparable to parochial and private schools. Fantini (Levin, 1970) concludes that all past attempts at intervention-including compensatory education, integration, model subsystems, and parallel systems are outdated and lack the capability of responding to growing demands.

Various writers have also expressed dissatisfaction with the lack of responsiveness of school systems to communities and community organizations. Lyke (Levin, 1970), in a study of two medium-sized centres, concludes that no centralized urban school board can adequately respond to the demands of citizens

at the present time. O'Shea (1975) states that most suburban U.S. boards seem not to exercise formal responsibility to translate constituent preferences into educational policies. Ziegler and Jennings (1974) conclude that the public exerts little control over the instructional program in public schools.

The Canadian public, up to the late 60's, has not exhibited a significant degree of dissatisfaction with the educational system. In Alberta, studies by Brimacombe (1957), Bride (1962), and Ingram (1962) indicate a generally favourable attitude toward schools on the part of parents, with some minor exceptions. More recent literature, though, seems to indicate a general attitudinal change on the part of the Canadian public. Hodgson (1972:72) states that:

> What we have now is a general feeling of unrest about education in many quarters. This unrest is stimulated by melodramatic American paperbacks that tend to over-simplify and over generalize.

Green (1975:5) sums up the societal changes during the 1960's and their effects upon education:

> Rapid and technological developments, the considerable shrinking of the globe, the recognition that individuals needed more and more skills just to survive in a more complex society - these among other factors led to a severe questioning of the educational process as it had been traditionally conducted.

McCordic (1974:44) relates the emergence of the middle class as the dominant social group to an increased expectation for the school. He states that, "despite the fact that the data offers evidence of progress, growth and success, the dominant rhetoric of our time is failure, guilt and crisis."

In addition, he notes the increasing organization of various elements of the school enterprise and the resultant rivalries and power struggles. Similarly, Saunders (1973) sees the current call for accountability as being triggered by both dissatisfaction and rising costs. Kupfer (1969) makes the following assumptions about the changing attitudes of Canadian society:

1. Student, faculty, and parent dissatisfaction with education and educational institutions is widespread.

2. The existing social order is under review and subject to challenge.

3. There is a strong feeling that fundamental changes are necessary.

4. Schools are often seen as serving special interest groups and those who manage schools.

Miller (1972:11) identifies as one of the circumstances giving rise to accountability a, "certain gap between the ideals and the practices of educators and the nature and functions of public education as perceived by the major agencies financing the schools." Langlois (1972:55) also states that, "if education is to secure continued support from the public, it must make a concerted effort to consult the public in regard to its expectations of the school."

Bureaucratization of School Systems. This is also a major factor contributing to the community control movement throughout North America. Howsam (Carson, 1968:15) states that:

> Over the years, the institutions of education have become highly developed.

> What has come to be know as "the establishment" has grown up. This has exercised control over education and has seen that the interests and influence of the members have been preserved. Many have observed that "the establishment" has been relatively conservative and unresponsive to educational needs and changing times.

McCoy (Levin, 1970) argues that professionals are neither community minded nor sensitive to the socio-economic trends in the community that affect the pupils' education and parental attitudes toward schools. Cronin (1973), in addressing himself to the history of educational control, traces the movement of power from laymen to professionals and suggests that this was done to separate politics from the educational process. He observes, though, that the reformers, in the name of "taking the school out of politics, substituted their own brand of middle class politics by cancelling the arrangements for school governance at the neighborhood level (page 11)." Boyd and O'Shea (1975) dispute the pluralistic theory of decision making which argues that public policy emerges through a process of bargaining among various individuals and groups. This theory, they suggest, has been compromised by the fact that educational decision making tends to be heavily in favor of the interests of public bureaucracies. Fantini (Levin, 1970) also notes the decline of parental and community participation in the governance of education and the narrowing base of personnel working in the schools. Gittell (Levin, 1970) characterizes the present system as one void of competition and suggests that the community control

movement will reintroduce competition by forcing professional educators to compete with community groups for a share of the educational decision making process.

Much of the Canadian literature in this area also tends to be very critical of the educational bureaucracy. Langlois (1972), in an address to the Canadian School Trustees' Association, expresses the opinion that educators have not sought public commitment to school objectives. Similarly, Earle (1968) in a study of educational innovations in Alberta Schools, concludes that only 5.3 percent of all the innovations in schools originiate with citizens' groups. The remainder originate from within the bureaucracy itself. Miller (1972) argues that the growing professionalism of teachers as characterized by increased qualifications, bureaucracratization of the educational system, and improvements in the socio-economic status of educators have led to a direct conflict between professionalism and accountability which must be resolved.

Desire for Lay Involvement. A third major factor contributing to the community control movement is the alleged desire on the part of laymen to become involved in the educational process.

Although this desire is expressed in much of the American literature a number of important studies have also been done in Canada, especially in the province of Ontario. Saunders (1973) notes a growing acceptance of the idea that persons affected by a decision must be involved in making that decision.

He notes also the success that Advisory Vocational Committees and French Language Advisory Committees in Ontario have experienced when school boards have referred problems and tasks to them and have been willing to react to their advice. He also refers to a recent 'Quality of Education Survey' conducted by the Ontario Ministry of Education which indicated that one-half of the parents surveyed were not satisfied with parent-teacher communications and wished to be involved to a greater extent in the schools. Another study by Larson (1973) in the Medicine Hat and Lethbridge school systems also indicates that when professional and lay personnel are given the opportunity to play an active part in decision making they feel a good measure of accountability.

Ryan (1972) cites a study of parents and students in a Metro Toronto school system (1971). Sixty percent of the parents and forty-three percent of the students agreed that parents and interested community members should be included in the planning and development of school curriculum. The majority of the parents were also in favour of a parent-teacher association, although only one-third of the students approved. Both groups favored parent representation on the liason committee. Interestingly enough, neither group wanted the parents to have an active role in school governance.

Another study, initiated by the Educational Courier (Jan., 1975), surveyed every educational jurisdiction in Ontario. It indicated that, although politicians showed great reluctance to think of parental involvement in terms of educational

processes, parents were far more concerned about becoming involved in the process itself.

Another study by Pomfret (1972) indicates a related aspect of community participation, the relationship between participation and student achievement. His findings indicate that achievement levels rise when parents are directly involved in their children's education. He argues that participation in school decision making may be a necessary concomitant to an involvement in student achievement. Although this study is outside of the scope of the present study, it does provide another perspective to community participation.

Theoretical Models of Community Participation and Control

Two models of community participation are most commonly utilized to illustrate the relationship between community control and other forms of participation. The first is Arnstein's (1969) Ladder of Citizen Participation which establishes eight levels or degrees of participation corresponding to the extent of citizens' power in determining a specific plan or program. This is illustrated in Figure 1. Arnstein (1969) describes the bottom two rungs on the ladder (manipulation, therapy) as levels of non-participation that have been contrived to substitute for genuine participation. The next three rungs (informing, consultation, placation) he refers to as tokenism - steps in the right direction but lacking the assurance that citizens' views will be heeded. The top three rungs (partnership, delegated power, citizen control) are differentiated from other levels of partic-

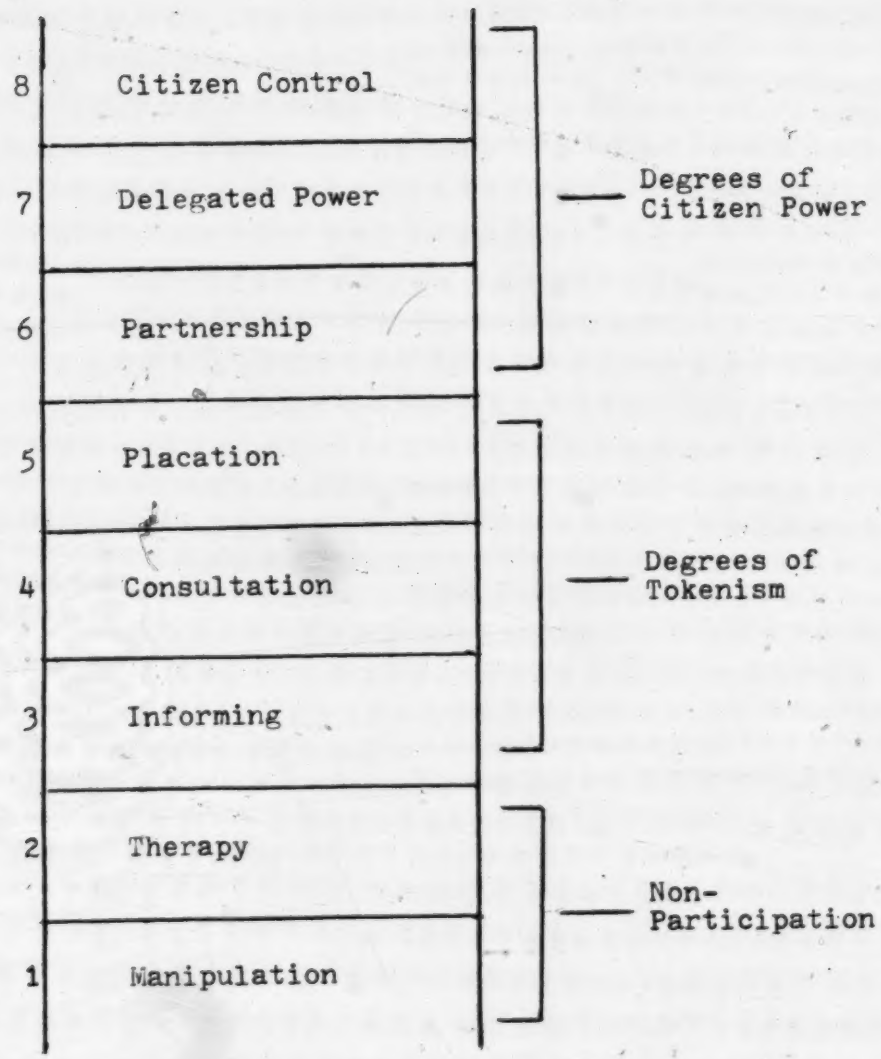

Figure 1

Arnstein's Ladder of Citizen Participation

ipation by their varing degrees of power or "decision making clout." Partnership enables citizens to negotiate and engage in tradeoffs. Both delegated power and citizen control allow citizens to obtain the majority of decision making seats or full managerial power. Arnstein's (1969) ladder has been adapted by Saxe (1975) and applied to school policy formation, as illustrated in Table 1.

A similar typology by Yates (1973) utilizes a seven-point scale to distinguish degrees of decentralization as shown in Table 2. Lower level activities such as intelligence gathering and consultation involve a minimum of local or citizen participation while higher level activities such as control over political resources and authoritative decision making involve a maximum of participation. Cibulka (1974) has adapted Yates' typology for use in public education.

The second major theoretical model of community participation is Boyd and O'Shea's (1975) theory of political and administrative decentralization. This theory parallels that of Yates, but isolates two major types of decentralization; political and administrative. Political decentralization involves the decentralization of power to the local level--local or community control--and corresponds to the upper level of Yates' scale. Administrative decentralization includes the delegation of substantial authority and discretion to unit administrators and corresponds to the lower levels of Yates' scale. Boyd and O'Shea note that

Table 1

Saxe's Adaptation of Arnstein's Ladder of Citizen Participation to School Policy Formation

Participation Level	Educational Equivalent
Citizen Control	Free schools, complete community control.
Delegated Power	Community control of specific areas. eg. personnel
Partnership	Joint policy boards.
Placation	Citizens on board of control.
Consultation	Local community hearings, surveys, need assessments.
Informing	Public relations practices, media, bulletins, letters.
Therapy	Parent educational programs. Recruitment of local leaders by paraprofessional salaries and socialization to educators' norms.
Manipulation	Token advisory committees dominated by professionals or friends.

Table 2

Yates' Community and Administrative Decentralization Scale

1. Intelligence gathering - stationing officials in localities to find out what is going on in the field.
2. Consultation and advisory planning - seeking out the opinions of local people on policy matters.
3. Program administration - making local people the administrative agents of central government programs and policies.
4. Political accountability - establishing elected officials at the local level as representatives of local interests.
5. Administrative accountability - making district or neighborhood administrators responsible for government programs and accountable to local citizens.
6. Authoritative decision making - giving localities variable amounts of control over policy and program development.
7. Political resources - giving localities control over fiscal resources such that local decision making involves real stakes and capabilities.

the continuing controversy over political and administrative decentralization arises from differing definitions of the control problem.

Theoretical Models of Control Process

A number of theories have also been advanced with regard to the process by which community control may be achieved. Allison's (1971) "Political Bargaining" and "Organizational Process" models are salient to this question.

According to Allison, political bargaining involves a political contest among disparate-interest groups, organizations, or segments of opinion. Conversely, organizational process involves the decision making process that occurs within the formal organization. These two processes, he theorizes, frequently come into conflict with one another. O'Shea (1975) further demonstrates that decentralization policies often accentuate conflict between organizational processes which tend to perpetuate the administrative structure and political bargaining which seeks community control. His data suggests that policy decisions usually reflect the dominance of organizational processes. Pilo (1975) also utilizes the political bargaining and organizational processes models to describe the development of community control in New York City.

Another theory, propounded by Thompson (1967), describes the process by which formal organizations cope with environmental changes while simultaneously striving to gain formalized control over internal operations. This is accom-

plished by creating certain parts to deal specifically with uncertainty so that other parts may operate under conditions of certainty or near certainty. This mechanism is referred to as 'boundary spanning'. O'Shea (1975) describes structures such as 'community relations programs' and 'citizens' advisory groups' as examples of boundary spanning.

Summary

In this chapter we have examined the literature relating to community participation and control of educational decision making. Generally, the literature seems to indicate three major reasons for the present interest in community control; 1) dissatisfaction with the present school system, 2) bureaucratization of the school systems and 3) the desire on the part of the laymen to become involved in the educational process. It was also found that these factors were present to a lesser extent in Canadian than in American literature.

Two models of Community participation were also examined. Arnsteins' (1969) model attempts to delineate eight levels of citizen participation. Boyd and O'Shea's (1975) theory of political and administrative decentralization roughly parallels Arnstein's. Other literature describing the conflict involved in the community control process was also examined.

Various literature was also examined indicating the extent of Community Control in North America. It illustrates that although the community control movement has made substantial gains in the U.S., it is still not a predominant aspect of American education. In Canada, it has developed

only to the stage of increased participation in educational decision making.

CHAPTER III

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Conceptual Base for the Instrument

The major purpose of the instrument was to assess public attitudes relating to three components of educational decision making:

1. Sources of decision making.
2. Levels of decision making.
3. Dimensions of decision making.

Sources of decision making. The source of decision making refers to the individual or group that has the authority to make educational decisions. The sources which seemed most appropriate for this study include:

1. The Department of Education - the government agency responsible for basic education in the province of Alberta.
2. The School Board - trustees chosen by civic election to administer school systems.
3. The School - the personnel who are associated with the operation of the local school.
4. The Community - representatives of the community or area in which the school is situated.
5. The School/Community - equal representation from the school and the community.

Authority. The role of authority is central to a consideration of the source of decision making. According to Simon (1961), authority serves two major functions within the decision making process:

1. It plays a central role in the acceptance of a decision.

2. It gives an organization its formal structure. Anderson (1968) suggests that authority can be differentiated from other forms of influence by two criteria. It requires (1) a willing compliance and (2) a suspension of judgement rather than rational evaluation. Another important characteristic of authority is that it is legitimated power. Consequently, its basis lies in the source of legitimation. Zaleznik and Moment (1964) delineate two bases of authority. Formal authority is exercised within the context of the organization. Functional authority is granted because of some special competence or on some kind of affectual basis.

The above concepts have important implications for education and educational decision making:

1. Authority for educational decision making is highly dependent upon the source of authorization. For example, schools are granted decision making authority by their respective school boards. Consequently, the extent of decision making authority within the school varies among jurisdictions.

2. Decision making alternatives are limited to a great extent by the source of authorization. For example, school decision making, even in a decentralized school district, will be affected greatly by the philosophy and policies of the school board that authorizes decentralized decision making.

3. Authority resides predominantly in the formal organizational structure. For the purposes of this study, the formal organizational structure includes the Department of Education, the school boards and the schools.

4. Organizations outside the formal organizational structure must resort to functional authority or, more commonly, some means of influencing the formal organization in order to accomplish their goals. For the purposes of this study, two such types of organization include (1) community organizations whose representatives are elected or appointed from the community or area, and (2) school/community committees comprised of equal representation from the school and the community. Both types are presently operational in various jurisdictions but usually hold no formal authority, although a certain degree of functional authority may be granted within a limited range of decision making. The school/community committee is apt to have more access to authority because it includes members of the formal organization and is frequently initiated by them.

There is substantial controversy over the extent to

which communities can indeed influence the authority system. Summerfield (1971:96) refers to communities or neighborhoods as interest groups. He emphasizes that "for a neighborhood to function as an effective political unit petitioners must blend a degree of respect for education with a component of critical, measured demands on the school." Litwak and Meyer (1974) describe eight 'linking mechanisms' through which the community can seek the resolution of differences and goals between the school and the community. These include:

1. Advocate bureaucracy - another bureaucracy to press for a change in the first bureaucracy.

2. Strategic influencers - powerful or influential persons to advocate the cause of the community.

3. Voluntary associations.

4. Mass media.

5. Ad hoc demonstrations.

6. Sustained collective action - strikes, boycotts, harassment, etc.

7. Common messenger - persons who are simultaneously members of community primary groups and the formal organization.

8. Individual ad hoc contact.

Thomas (1967), in a study of school board decision making, suggests that the process of decision making in a community involves both formal government structures and voluntary associations. He stresses that voluntary groups are important sources of social control, especially the control of content and the flow of information. Thompson (1967)

emphasizes the process of 'boundary spanning' by which an organization receives inputs of information and resources from the environment and, conversely, exerts some measure of control over those same elements.

Proponents of community control, on the other hand, see the present authority structure as a closed system, unresponsive to the environment in which it functions. Rather than accomodation they seek inclusion of the community as a separate authority structure. Pfantz (Levin, 1970:59) appropriately describes this as a desire for "access to power" on the part of the community. Cronin (1973) identifies three possible models of school reorganization to achieve this:

1. Smaller educational units with considerable community veto power over personnel, curriculum and contracts.

2. Larger educational units such as school districts especially for finance and planning purposes.

3. A two-tier system of governance that includes elements of both.

The most effective means of establishing the community as a source of educational authority has been through legislation. O'Shea (1975), for instance, cites two recent commissions in New York that have proposed that new community districts be granted full autonomy, making them equivalent to all other districts in the state. In Canada the pressure for direct community authority has been less intense but a trend seems to be evolving in that direction.

Recent legislation in Quebec, for instance, has established a requirement for a school committee in each school to advise the principal on educational decisions. In many provinces, including Alberta, parent advisory committees are prerequisites for the establishment of kindergartens. Although these are small steps, they seem to indicate an expansion of educational authority in the future to include individuals and organizations outside the traditional formal organization.

Levels of decision making. The level of decision making refers to that point in the hierarchy of decision making at which the decision is made. According to Simon (1961), decision are hierarchical in that they usually involve the application of broader decisions made at a higher level. Further, he argues that decisions at the top of the hierarchy tend to be ethical (ought to) in nature while those at the bottom of the hierarchy tend to be factual (is) in nature. Those in between contain elements of both. This concept is most often applied to organizational theory.

There are substantial differences, though, in opinions regarding specific levels of decision making within the hierarchy. Two levels are commonly recognized. Simpkins (1968) refers to these as 'policy and principle' and 'specific procedures and practice.' The first, being primarily ethical statements, presumably occur near the top of the hierarchy while the second, being based on the first, occur

at a lower level. For the purposes of this study, these two levels of decision making are termed, respectively, 'goals and policies' and 'regulations and rules.'

Traditionally, these have been considered the two most effective levels of decision making. Allison (1965), for instance, found that laymen most often attempt to exert influence over decision making at the policy-making level. Giles (1974), in outlining the steps in curriculum decision making perceives the role of the local lay representative as that of assisting in both 'determining' and 'operationalizing' goals. Proponents of community control, though, frequently allude to two other levels of decision making not commonly available to laymen; the 'implementation' level and the 'evaluation' level. Parsons (1970), for instance, specifies four decision making areas that should be controlled by local community school boards:

1. Hiring and firing of school personnel.
2. Planning and approval of program and curriculum.
3. Granting of contracts for construction, maintenance and repair.
4. Determination of size and allocation of the budget.

Each of these four decision making areas involves elements of both implementation and evaluation. The underlying argument is that actual control over decision making really begins at these levels.

The implementation level of decision making implies two characteristics. The first is the presence of the decision maker at the point of implementation. The second is that these decisions are based on previous decisions and thus occur at a lower level of the hierarchy of decisions.

According to Simon's (1961) model, decisions occuring lower on the hierarchy contain a greater degree of factual elements. It can be assumed, therefore, that implementation decisions, although they are based on higher level decisions, require a greater degree of expertise on the part of the decision maker. For this reason, implementation decisions have traditionally been made by educators. Allison (1965), for instance, found that professional educators most often attempted to exert influence over educational decision making at the level of implementation rather that at the policy making level.

A number of studies have also indicated that school boards, traditionally policy making bodies, frequently tend to delegate even that function to educators at the implementation level. Zeigler and Jennings (1974) found that boards of trustees informally delegate instruction and curriculum policy making responsibility to the superintendent. Lyke (1970) concluded that public education, even under a community control model, is frequently shaped by teachers and administrators.

It has been argued by some educators that a related trend in Alberta has been the propensity of government agen-

cies to bypass school boards by awarding grants to individual schools for specific educational projects. The Educational Opportunity Fund (EOF) is a case in point.

Clearly, the last few years have witnessed an accumulation of decision making authority at the implementation level, the focus of which is predominantly the school itself. It is, therefore, understandable that many of the proponents of community control have concluded that the school itself, rather than the board room, is 'where the action is.'

Evaluative decisions, like implementation decisions, involve the presence of the decision maker at the point of evaluation. These decisions are similar to decisions at other levels, to the extent that they are based upon decisions made at a higher level of the hierarchy. They are discrete, though, in their function as a necessary link between the various levels of the hierarchy. It is only at the evaluative level that one can determine whether or not the original goals and policies have been effectively fulfilled.

Richards and Greenlaw (1966) delineate two types of evaluative decisions:

1. Those in which the activities do not aid in meeting the objectives of the organization (performance inadequacies).

2. Those in which the objectives of the organization

are proven to be unrealistic.

In both cases this genre of decision making involves an evaluation of the activities of the organization in relation to the previously established goals and policies.

Evaluative decisions, to an even greater extent than implementation decisions, have been jealously guarded by educators. Giles (1974:93) describes the involvement of local communities in evaluation of schools as, "usually informal and somewhat ethereal." Barnard (1960:192) aptly describes this situation by stating:

> Not the least of the dysfunctions of appraising the executive functions or the relative merits of the executives lies in the fact that there is little direct opportunity to observe the essential operations of decisions...Most executive decisions produce no direct evidence of themselves and that knowledge of them can only be derived from the cumulation of indirect evidence.

As already mentioned, both the implementation level and the evaluative level of decision making are most commonly associated with the formal organization. The formal organization is frequently differentiated from the informal organization by a number of criteria, one of which is expertise. Litwak and Meyer (1974) suggest that the performance of both expert and nonexpert tasks is necessary to the educational process. Expert tasks are defined as those which require specialized training and equipment. Nonexpert tasks are those which can be handled on the basis of ordinary experience and socialization. Allison (1971) carries the distinction further by describing two models of rational decision making; (1) the functionally rational model, in which

decisions are based on scientific knowledge or expertise, and (2) the substantially rational model, in which there is an absence of complete scientific knowledge but the decision makers have intelligent insight into the interrelationship of events in a given situation. Although the traditional view of decision making perceives both implementation and evaluative decisions as 'functionally rational' or 'expert', proponents of community control see them as 'substantially rational' or 'nonexpert' decisions.

Dimensions of decision making. Various studies have attempted to delineate dimensions of educational decision making. Keen (1963) categorizes educational decisions into six operational areas; (1) instructional programs, (2) student personnel, (3) staff personnel, (4) business management and accounting, (5) school buildings and property,and (6) board of education. Allison (1965) makes reference to three basic types; (1) curriculum, (2) staff personnel, and (3) finances. Campbell, Corbally and Ramseyer (1962) delineate seven task areas for school administrators; (1) organization and structure, (2) instructional program, (3) pupil personnel, (4)staff personnel, (5) physical facilities, (6) relations with the community, and (7) financing and expenditures. Callbeck (1965) refers to;(1) instruction, (2) curriculum, (3) facilities, services and materials, and (4) personnel.

This study includes eight basic dimensions:

1. Student personnel

2. Professional staff personnel
3. Non-professional staff personnel
4. Resource allocation
5. Curriculum
6. Physical facilities
7. School organization and structure
8. Instruction

Summary

In this chapter we examined in detail the components of decision making upon which the instrument is based. These include; (1) five sources of decision making, (2)four levels of decision making and (3) eight dimensions of decision making common to education.

The discussion of sources of decision making centred upon the role of authority and its implications for educational decision making. It was found that much of the literature seemed to indicate a trend towards extending authority to include individuals and organizations presently outside of the formal organizational structure.

The hierarchical characteristics of each of the four levels of decision making were discussed in some detail. It was suggested that two of the levels, implementation and evaluation, are not commonly available to laymen and are most often linked with the formal organization. A number of studies identifying these two levels of decision making were examined.

The eight dimension of decision making utilized in this

study were also examined. A number of studies delineating various dimensions were presented.

CHAPTER IV

INSTRUMENTATION AND METHODOLOGY

Design of the Instrument

The instrument is designed to meet four objectives:

1. Define the sample.
2. Measure differences in attitude among specific sectors of the sample.
3. Measure the attitudes of the sample about actual and preferred sources of educational decision making.
4. Determine relationships which may exist between the attitudes expressed and the types of decisions presented.

Defining the sample. The sample is defined through a series of demographic questions constructed to obtain the following information:

1. Sex
2. Age
3. Level of educational attainment
4. Children attending school
5. Type of school children attend
6. Teaching experience
7. School decision making experience
8. School Advisory Committee experience
9. Kindergarten Advisory Committee experience
10. Continuing Education Council experience

11. Extent of school involvement

12. Extent of community involvement

13. Willingness to spend time in educational decision making.

14. Presence of community school in the area

Differences in attitude. The demographic information is also used to determine whether a relationship exists be--tween any of the above variables and the preferred scores as measured on the second part of the instrument.

Actual and preferred sources of decision making. The actual and preferred scores are intended to provide the following information:

1. The source at which the respondents perceive decisions are actually made. It is acknowledged that, although this is not an accurate assessment, it does reflect the attitudes of the respondents and provides a benchmark for a comparison of actual and preferred sources.

2. The source at which the respondents prefer decisions to be made. It is felt that , because this category demands a minimum of expertise about educational decision making, it should accurately measure the preferences of the respondents.

3. A comparison of actual and preferred sources of educational decision making. The differences between the two scores, irrespective of the scores themselves, should provide important information regarding the direction and degree of change desired by the respondents.

Determining relationships. In order to determine relationships which may exist between the attitudes expressed by the respondents and the types of decisions presented, the 32 decisions are categorized according to the eight dimensions and four levels of decision making discussed in Chapter III. This is illustrated on the grid in Table 3. This allows the researcher to analyze responses to the decisions both on an individual basis and in terms of one or more groupings. Other possible groupings of decisions are also allowed for.

Figure 2 illustrates the overall design of the instrument by means of a model.

Construction of the Instrument

The instrument is divided into two parts. The first part is a series of demographic questions which attempt to define the sample. The second part is a series of 32 decisions based upon the four levels and eight dimensions of decision making. The respondents are asked to make two choices for each decision; (1) the actual source of decision making, and (2) the preferred source of decision making.

In order to establish the face validity of the decisions, a number of educators were given the decisions and asked to place them on the grid illustrated in Table 3. Those decisions which seemed unclear or ambiguous were subsequently replaced with more concise decisions. The 32 final decisions were then distributed randomly throughout the instrument in the order shown in Table 4.

Table 3

The Thirty-Two Educational Decisions Distributed According to Dimension and Level

	Levels of Decision Making				
Dimensions of Decision Making		Goals & Policies	Regulations & Rules	Implementation	Evaluation
	Instruction	Decision # 3	Decision # 19	Decision # 27	Decision # 24
	School Organ.& Struc.	Decision # 29	Decision # 13	Decision # 23	Decision # 8
	Physical Facilities	Decision # 26	Decision # 18	Decision # 6	Decision # 31
	Curriculum	Decision # 16	Decision # 7	Decision # 11	Decision # 17
	Resource Allocation	Decision # 9	Decision #2	Decision # 20	Decision # 22
	Non-Prof. Staff Person.	Decision # 28	Decision # 5	Decision # 32	Decision # 14
	Prof. Staff Person.	Decision # 25	Decision #10	Decision # 21	Decision # 4
	Student Person.	Decision # 1	Decision # 30	Decision # 15	Decision # 12

Table 4

The Thirty-Two Educational Decisions
Listed in Order of Presentation
in the Survey

Decision 1	Setting general standards of behavior for students.
Decision 2	Determining the amount of money to be spent on specific subjects.
Decision 3	Setting general goals of instruction.
Decision 4	Evaluating teachers with regard to their ability and efficiency.
Decision 5	Preparing a list of duties for the caretaking staff.
Decision 6	Scheduling the use of the gymnasium during and after school hours.
Decision 7	Determining the content of each subject taught.
Decision 8	Determining improvements in the use of audio-visual equipment.
Decision 9	Specifying areas of priority for school expenditures.
Decision 10	Preparing job descriptions for teachers.
Decision 11	Choosing textbooks and other curriculum materials.
Decision 12	Periodically evaluating discipline measures taken in the school.
Decision 13	Determining the number and types of classes within the school.
Decision 14	Rating the efficiency of the school caretaking staff.
Decision 15	Prescribing discipline for individual students.

Table 4 (continued)

Decision 16	Determining the general subject areas to be taught in the school.
Decision 17	Determining how efficiently curriculum materials are used in the school.
Decision 18	Making regulations governing the use of the gymnasium during the day.
Decision 19	Determining the desired methods of classroom instruction.
Decision 20	Administering the school budget
Decision 21	Hiring and discharging teachers and/or administrators.
Decision 22	Determining how wisely money is spent in the school.
Decision 23	Assigning staff members to specific non-teaching duties.
Decision 24	Evaluating the way each teacher relates to his or her class.
Decision 25	Setting the desired requirements for prospective teaching staff.
Decision 26	Designing general policies for the use of school facilities.
Decision 27	Instituting a system of classroom testing.
Decision 28	Setting school requirements for the hiring of non-teaching staff.
Decision 29	Setting general policies for organizing the school.
Decision 30	Making rules for the promotion and failure of students.
Decision 31	Changing the use of those school facilities that are not being used appropriately or efficiently.
Decision 32	Hiring and discharging secretarial and caretaking staff.

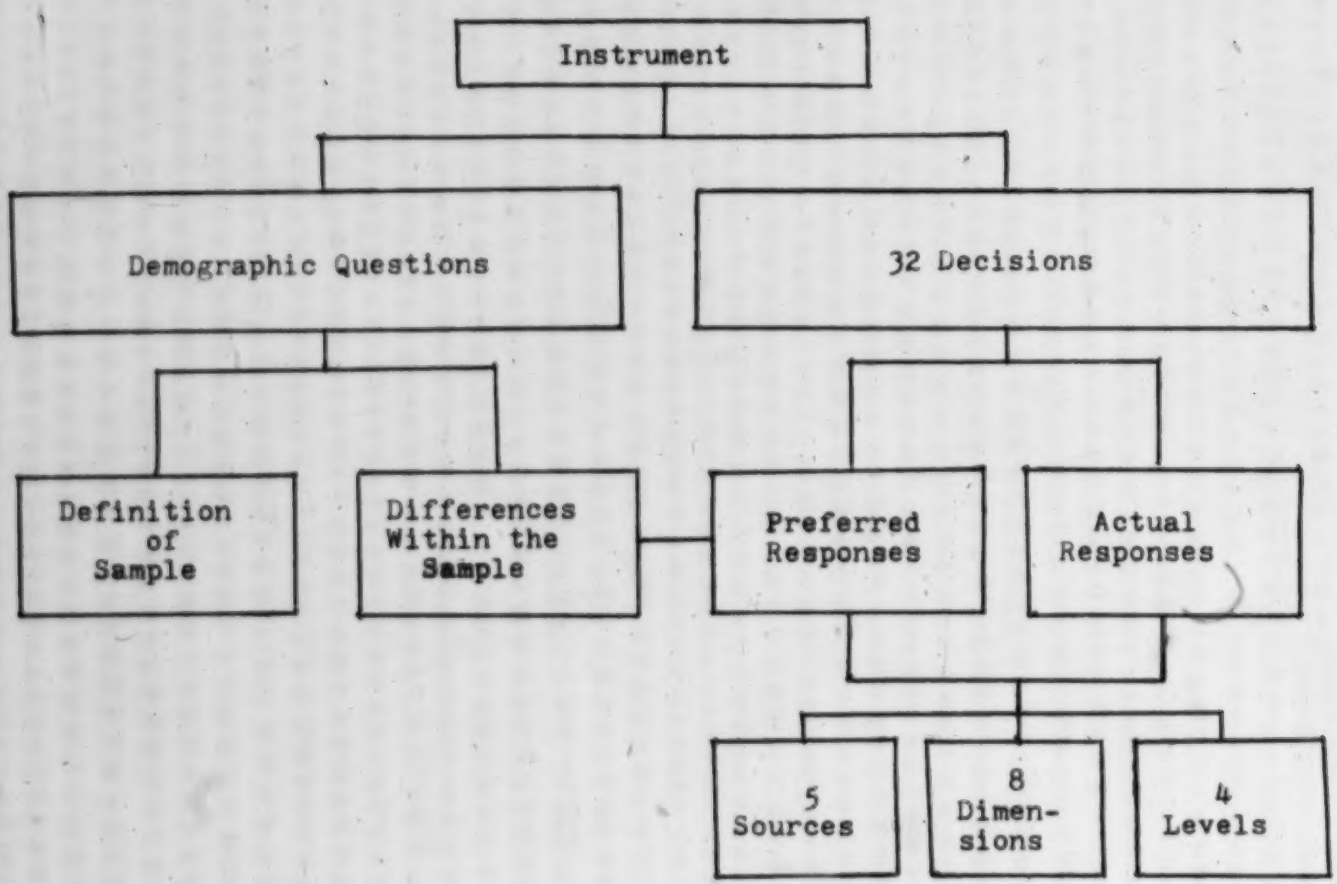

Figure 2

Design of the Instrument

Decentralization Scale

Although the study is primarily concerned with the extent of public support for community decision making, the instrument is designed to include all of the major sources of educational decision making so as not to restrict the choices of the respondents. This also allows the study to cover a wider scope. As already discussed, the five sources of decision making chosen for this study include the following:

1. Department of Education
2. School Board
3. School
4. School/Community
5. Community

Although these five response categories are not intended to be inclusive of all possible sources or combinations of sources, they are designed to create an ordinal scale of decentralization. As indicated above, each source is assigned a numerical value ranging from 1 for the least decentralized source (Department of Education) to 5 for the most decentralized source (Community). The responses can then be computed to produce a mean actual and preferred score, each of which represents a specific point on the decentralization scale. These can also be computed to produce a mean actual scale score and a mean preferred scale score for the total 32 decisions. Consequently, the greater the mean score for each decision or group of de-

cisions, the greater the degree of decentralization as perceived by the respondents.

The decentralization scale is central to this study. It provides a single measure for; (1) comparing actual and preferred responses, (2) examining relationships between the sources of decision making and specific groups of decisions, and (3) examining differences in attitudes between specific sectors of the sample in relation to the preferred sources of decision making. Where more specific information is necessary, a further analysis of the response frequencies (number of responses) at each source of decision making is necessary. For example, the data indicates that the four Physical Facilities decisions (6,18,21,31) exhibit a relatively high preferred mean score on the decentralization scale (3.3). This seems to indicate that the respondents prefer a relatively high degree of decentralization for those decisions. Further analysis of the response frequencies at each of the five sources indicates that the School/Community is the preferred source of decision making for two of the four Physical Facilities decisions (26,31). The School is the preferred source for one of the decisions (6) and the respondents prefer the other (18) to be shared by the School and the School/Community.

Pilot Testing of the Instrument

The instrument was originally distributed to thirty

recipients. Each was asked to respond to the questions and to make written comments regarding clarity and validity. Each was also asked to make any other suggestions for improvement of the survey. Where possible, the respondent was also questioned verbally. As a result, a number of changes were made before distribution of the instrument.

Selection of the Sample

The major goal in the selection of the sample was to obtain a random sample of the general public. It was decided at an early date not to distribute the instrument through the school systems because of the fact that it would primarily reach parents and not other segments of the population. Consequently, the instrument was distributed to 370 residencies selected at random from the 'Edmonton Street Address Numerical Directory' by means of a systematic sampling method.

Distribution of the Instrument

Each recipient received an instrument with instructions for completing it (Appendix 1) and a stamped, pre-addressed envelope for returning it. It was requested that one adult member of the household complete it. Each instrument was numbered for two reasons; (1) to determine which recipients had not returned the completed copy, and (2) to examine possible differences in responses among various types of communities. Reminder cards were mailed to those recipients

who did not return their completed copy within two weeks of distribution.

Returns

Of the 370 copies of the instrument distributed, only 65 were returned. This represents only a 17 percent return. Three possible reasons are advanced for the low rate of return.

1. The non-respondents may have felt unable to complete the instrument. Respondents to the pilot study, however, indicated that it took only a short time to complete.

2. The non-respondents may have felt that the instrument did not apply to them, especially those who did not have children in school. The instructions, though, stipulated that it was to be completed by, 'parents and other community members.'

3. The non-respondents may not have had a sufficient interest in the study.

It was recognized that a low rate of return is common for mailed questionnaires and that it could to some extent bias the results of the study. On the other hand, a more efficient method of distribution, such as through the schools, could also bias the results by restricting the sample to parents and those directly involved with the school. Consequently it was decided that the returns were adequate for the purposes of this study.

Analysis of the Data

In order to analyze the data, it was decided to carry out the following operations for each of the research questions delineated in Chapter I.

1. To determine possible relationships between the attitudes of the respondents and the 14 demographic variables, frequency distributions were derived for each of the variables. Each was also dichotomized and related to the total preference scale by means of a crosstabulation routine, to identify significant differences between groups. The Chi Square test of significance was utilized.

2. To determine the attitudes of the respondents toward actual and preferred sources of educational decision making, frequency distributions were determined for the actual and preferred responses to each decision and adjusted for missing data. Further, total actual and preferred scale scores were developed for the 32 decisions as a group. These total scale scores were standardized to a 5-point scale. T-Tests were also utilized to test the significance of differences between actual and preferred mean scores for each decision, each dimension, each level, and for the total scale scores.

3. To determine possible relationships between specific decisions and/or groups of decisions and the various sources of decision making, scale scores were developed for the actual and preferred dimensions and levels by combining the responses for related decisions. These were then standardized to a 5-point scale in order to permit com-

parisons with the scales of the individual decisions.

4. To determine the overall attitudes of the respondents toward the community as a source of decision making, frequency distributions were derived for each of the 32 decisions. This was also done for each of the other sources of decision making.

Summary

In this chapter we have examined the design of the instrument in terms of its four objectives. The importance of the decentralization scale was emphasized. We have also investigated the process of selecting the sample and piloting and distributing the instrument. Lastly, we have examined the operations involved in analysing the resultant data.

CHAPTER V

RESEARCH FINDINGS

The purpose of this chapter is to present the findings related to the analysis of the respondents' attitudes toward actual and preferred sources of educational decision making.

Demographic Variables

The following demographic variables were analysed in this study:

1. Sex
2. Age
3. Level of educational attainment
4. Children attending school
5. Type of school children attend
6. Teaching experience
7. School decision making experience
8. School Advisory Committee experience
9. Kindergarten Advisory Committee experience
10. Continuing Education Council experience
11. Extent of school involvement
12. Extent of community involvement
13. Willingness to spend time in educational decision making.
14. Presence of community school in the area

Table 5 provides a detailed description of the sample. Although most of the information is self-explanatory, the following should be noted in relation to this study:

Table 5

Frequencies - Demographic Variables

Variable	Percentage of total responses			
Sex	Male (46)	Female(54)		
Age	LT21(6.2)	21-30(25)	31-40(31.3)	GT40(37.5)
Education	LT10(14.1)	10-12(42.2)	MT12(43.8)	
Children in School	Yes(46.9)	No(53.1)		
Type of School	Public(81.5)	Separate(18.5)		
Teacher	Yes(17.2)	No(82.8)		
School Decision Making	Yes(25)	No(75)		
School Advisory Committee	Yes(6.5)	No(93.5)		
Kindergarten Advisory Committee	Yes(4.8)	No(95.2)		
Continuing Education Council	Yes(3.2)	No(96.8)		
Participation in School Activities	Freq(15.6)	Some(25)	Seldom(20.3)	Never(39.1)
Participation in Community Activities	Freq(14.1)	Some(23.4)	Seldom(25)	Never(37.5)
Time (hrs. per wk.)	7-10(5)	4-6(3.3)	1-3(51.7)	None(40)
Community School	Yes(31.3)	No(23.4)	Unsure(45.3)	

1. A small proportion of the sample was involved with educational decision making in some way. Only 25 percent indicated that they had been involved in school decision making, either individually or as part of a group. Further, only 6.4 percent were involved in School Advisory Committees, 4.7 percent in Kindergarten Advisory Committees and 3.1 percent in Continuing Education Councils.

2. A relatively large proportion of the sample were either not involved or minimally involved in school and/or community activities. As many as 59.4 percent indicated that they had seldom or never been involved in school activities and 62.5 percent indicated that they had seldom or never been involved in community activities.

3. A relatively large proportion of the sample was prepared to spend time in educational decision making. As many as 51.7 percent indicated that they would be willing to spend from one to three hours per week in educational decision making.

Two further questions were also asked of the respondents:

a. At what level is it most important for parents and other community members to participate in school decision making?

b. At what level do parents and other community members participate the most in school decision making at the present time?

The results indicate that 73.3 percent of the respondents believed that community involvement should take place at all grade levels. Further, 57.1 percent of the respondents per-

ceived that it took place at the kindergarten and elementary levels only, while only 8.2 percent perceived that it took place at all levels.

Further analysis was undertaken to establish possible relationships between each dependent variable and the total preference scale. Those variables containing more than two responses were dichotomized. For example, the variable AGE initially included four responses; (1) less than 21 years, (2) 21 - 30 years, (3) 31 - 40 years, and (4) more than 40 years of age. This variable was dichotomized to include only (1) 30 years or less, and (2) 31 years or more. Each dependent variable was then subjected to a Chi Square Test in order to identify significant differences between the two groups. A .01 level of probability was chosen as the criterion of significance.

Table 6 provides a breakdown of each dependent variable into two groups and identifies the mean score on the Decentralization Scale for each group. It also indicates whether a significant difference exists between the two groups for each variable. For example, the results indicate that for the variable SEX, females scored slightly higher on the Decentralization Scale (2.88) than males (2.65). A probability score of .46 was computed, though, indicating that the observed difference was due to chance. An analysis of each of the variables in Table 6 indicates that no significant difference on the dependent variables existed between groups for any of the variables examined.

One contributing factor for the lack of significant

Table 6

Mean Scores on Total Preference Scale
by Independent Variables

Variable	Group and Mean	Group and Mean	Significance
Sex	Male(2.65)	Female(2.88)	*
Age	LT30(2.90)	GT30(2.68)	*
Education	LT12(2.77)	GT12(2.71)	*
Children in School	Yes(2.73)	No(2.47)	*
Type	Public(2.72)	Private(2.60)	*
Teacher	Yes(2.90)	No(2.75)	*
School Decision Making	Yes(2.56)	No(2.77)	*
School Advisory Committee	Yes(3.00)	No(2.75)	*
Kindergarten Advisory Committee	Yes(2.00)	No(2.78)	*
Continuing Education Council	Yes(2.50)	No(2.83)	*
Participation in School Activities	Low(2.81)	High(2.73)	*
Participation in Community Activities	Low(2.85)	High(2.62)	*
Time	Low(2.80)	High(2.40)	*
Community School	Yes(2.85)	No(2.46)	*

* not significant at the .01 level

differences was probably the relatively small sample (64) upon which the analysis was based. Certain variables, even when dichotomized, had an inordinately small n for one of the groups. Consequently, little on no confidence can be placed in the resultant data.

Actual Responses

The actual response category was included in order to analyse the perceptions of the respondents regarding actual sources of educational decision making and to provide a benchmark with which to compare preferred responses.

Table 7 compares the percentage of actual responses at each source of decision making for each of the decisions. An examination of the distribution indicates the School Board to be the primary source of decision making, followed by the School and the Department of Education. Of the 32 decisions, the respondents perceived nine of them to be primarily made by the School Board, twelve to be made by the School and three to be made by the Department of Education. The remaining seven were perceived to be shared by two or more sources. Neither the School/Community or the Community were perceived to be major sources of decision making for any of the decisions.

As discussed earlier, a further breakdown showing the percentage of responses at each source of decision making (Figure 3) also indicates that the respondents perceived the School Board and the School to be the two primary

Table 7

Percentage of 'Actual' Respones at Each Source of Decision Making for Each Decision

Decision	Dept. of Ed.	Sch. Bd.	Sch.	Sch./Comm.	Comm.
1	11.5	11.5	69.3	1.9	5.8
2	30.2	52.8	13.2	3.8	---
3	51.0	27.5	21.5	---	---
4	28.3	56.5	15.2	---	---
5	4.4	33.3	62.2	---	---
6	2.1	12.8	83.0	2.1	---
7	61.3	22.4	16.3	---	---
8	29.5	36.5	29.5	4.5	---
9	20.5	63.6	13.6	---	2.3
10	31.8	56.8	9.1	2.3	---
11	54.0	26.0	20.0	---	---
12	6.8	54.5	38.6	---	---
13	24.5	51.0	24.5	---	---
14	2.3	27.9	67.4	2.3	---
15	2.1	12.8	83.0	---	2.1
16	46.9	38.8	14.3	---	---
17	23.3	39.5	37.2	---	---
18	6.4	34.0	59.6	---	---
19	34.9	34.9	30.2	---	---
20	9.6	59.7	28.8	1.9	---
21	10.0	80.0	10.0	---	---
22	4.8	71.4	19.0	---	4.8
23	4.7	14.0	76.7	2.3	2.3
24	13.0	37.0	50.0	---	---
25	36.4	45.5	18.1	---	---
26	8.7	56.5	34.8	---	---
27	40.5	26.2	33.3	---	---
28	11.9	61.9	19.0	4.8	2.4
29	11.9	45.2	38.1	2.4	2.4
30	37.0	13.0	50.0	---	---
31	12.2	61.0	24.4	2.4	---
32	4.2	50.0	45.8	---	---

Refer to Table 4 for the individual decisions

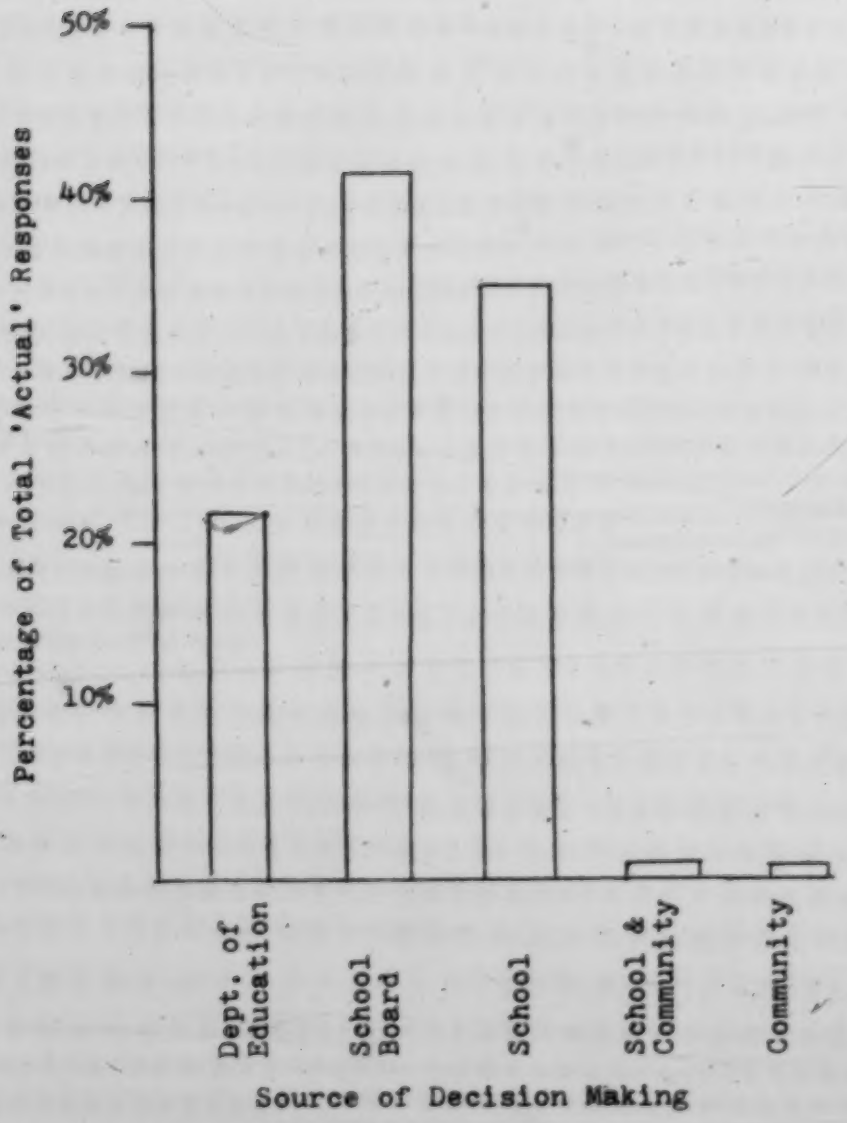

Figure 3

Percentage of Total 'Actual' Responses at Each Source of Decision Making for the Thirty-Two Decisions

sources of educational decision making. As well, it identifies the Department of Education as the third source. It also indicates an almost complete lack of community participation in, or control over, educational decision making.

Preferred Responses

Table 8 describes the respondents' preferences concerning the ideal source for each of the 32 decisions. An examination of the distribution indicates that the respondents generally preferred the School as the primary source of decision making, followed by the School/Community as a secondary source. Of the 32 decisions, the respondents preferred fourteen of them to be made by the School. The School/Community was preferred as the decision making source for three of the decisions, while the remaining fifteen were shared between two or more sources. The Community was not preferred as a source of decision making for any of the 32 decisions.

A further breakdown of the percentage of responses at each source, as shown in Figure 4 , also identifies the School as the primary source of decision making. The School/Community and the School Board cluster together as secondary sources, and the Department of Education is the third source. Support for the Community as a preferred source of decision making is negligible.

In order to identify common groupings of preferred

Percentage of 'Preferred' Responses at Each Source of Decision Making for Each Decision

Decision	Dept. of Ed.	Sch. Bd.	Sch.	Sch./Comm.	Comm.
1	4.7	6.5	32.3	46.8	9.7
2	16.9	34.0	18.6	23.7	6.8
3	23.3	13.3	40.0	21.7	1.7
4	20.7	27.6	25.9	24.1	1.7
5	----	30.0	68.3	1.7	---
6	----	1.6	69.8	25.4	3.2
7	35.6	15.3	30.5	16.9	1.7
8	25.4	16.9	40.0	18.6	5.1
9	6.8	33.9	33.9	20.3	5.1
10	33.9	20.3	35.6	10.2	---
11	33.9	13.6	35.6	15.3	1.6
12	6.6	32.8	18.0	39.3	3.3
13	11.5	19.7	39.3	27.9	1.6
14	3.2	22.6	58.1	12.9	3.2
15	----	----	71.0	29.0	---
16	26.7	23.3	33.3	15.0	1.7
17	17.9	16.0	42.9	23.2	---
18	----	3.3	50.0	40.0	6.7
19	14.5	10.9	49.1	25.5	---
20	3.3	36.1	44.3	13.1	3.2
21	8.2	34.4	37.7	14.8	4.9
22	3.3	34.4	23.0	31.1	8.2
23	----	14.3	73.2	8.9	3.6
24	3.4	15.5	51.8	25.9	3.4
25	26.7	21.7	31.7	16.7	3.2
26	4.8	16.1	27.4	48.4	3.1
27	35.0	11.7	43.3	10.0	---
28	10.0	25.0	48.3	16.7	---
29	4.9	32.8	34.4	21.3	6.6
30	25.9	6.9	48.3	15.5	3.4
31	4.9	21.3	24.6	42.6	6.6
32	1.7	30.0	55.0	11.7	1.6

Refer to Table 4 for individual decisions

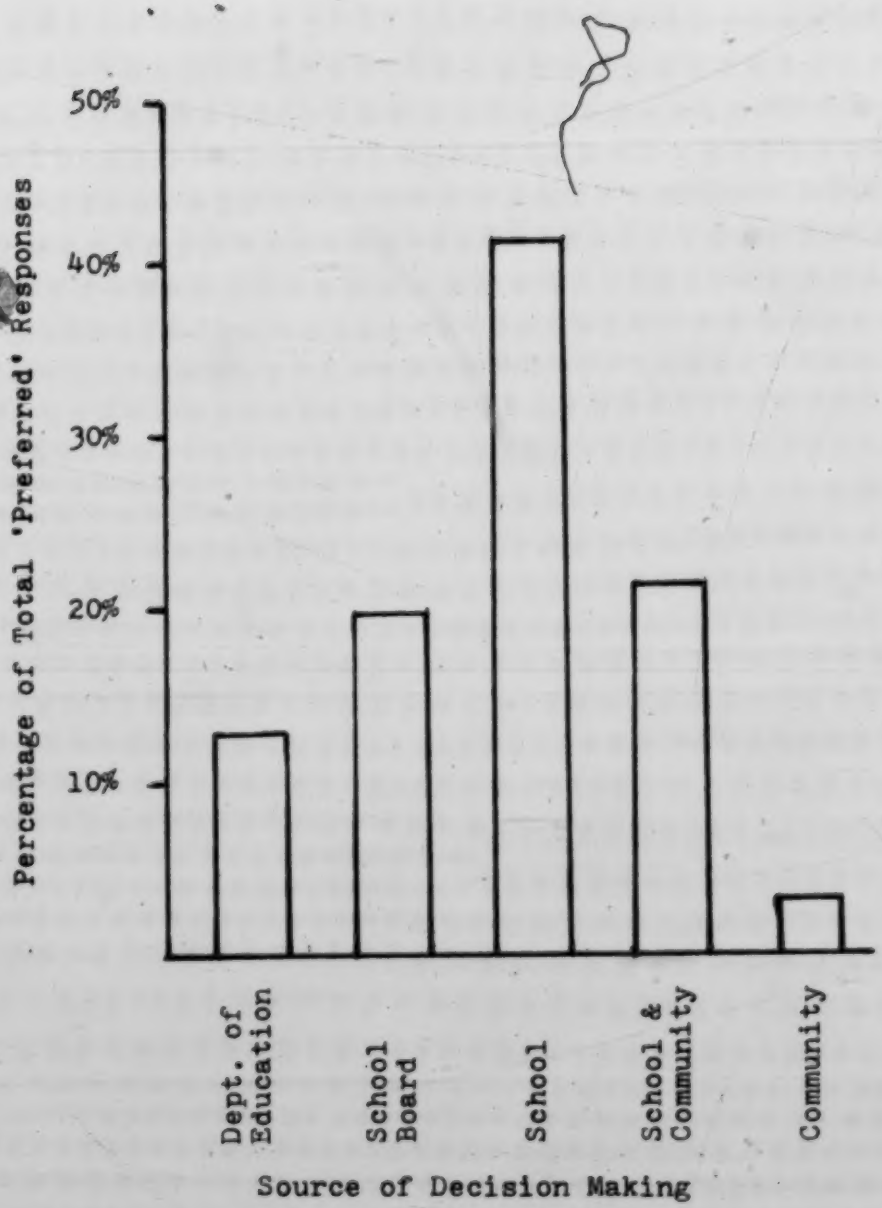

Figure 4

Percentage of Total 'Preferred' Responses at Each Source of Decision Making for 32 Decisions

decisions, the 32 decisions were further analysed in terms of the eight dimensions and four levels of decision making discussed in Chapter I. A further analysis was then undertaken to determine the existence of other common groupings not previously considered.

Dimensions of decision making. Figure 5 provides a comparison of the eight dimensions of decision making according to the mean scale score for each dimension on the Decentralization Scale.

The four Physical Facilities decisions (6,18,21,31) exhibited a combined mean score of 3.3. This indicates a preference for a relatively high degree of decentralization for these decisions. As illustrated in Table 8 , the School/Community was the preferred source of decision making for both decision 26 and decision 31. The school was the preferred source for decision 6 and the respondents preferred that decision 18 be shared by the School and the School/Community.

The four Student Personnel decisions (1,12,15,30) exhibited a combined mean score of 3.1. This also indicates a relatively high degree of decentralization for those four decisions. Table 8 indicates a preference for School/Community decision making for decision 1. The School is the preferred source for decision 15 and decision 30, and shared decision making between the School Board and School/Community is preferred for decision 12.

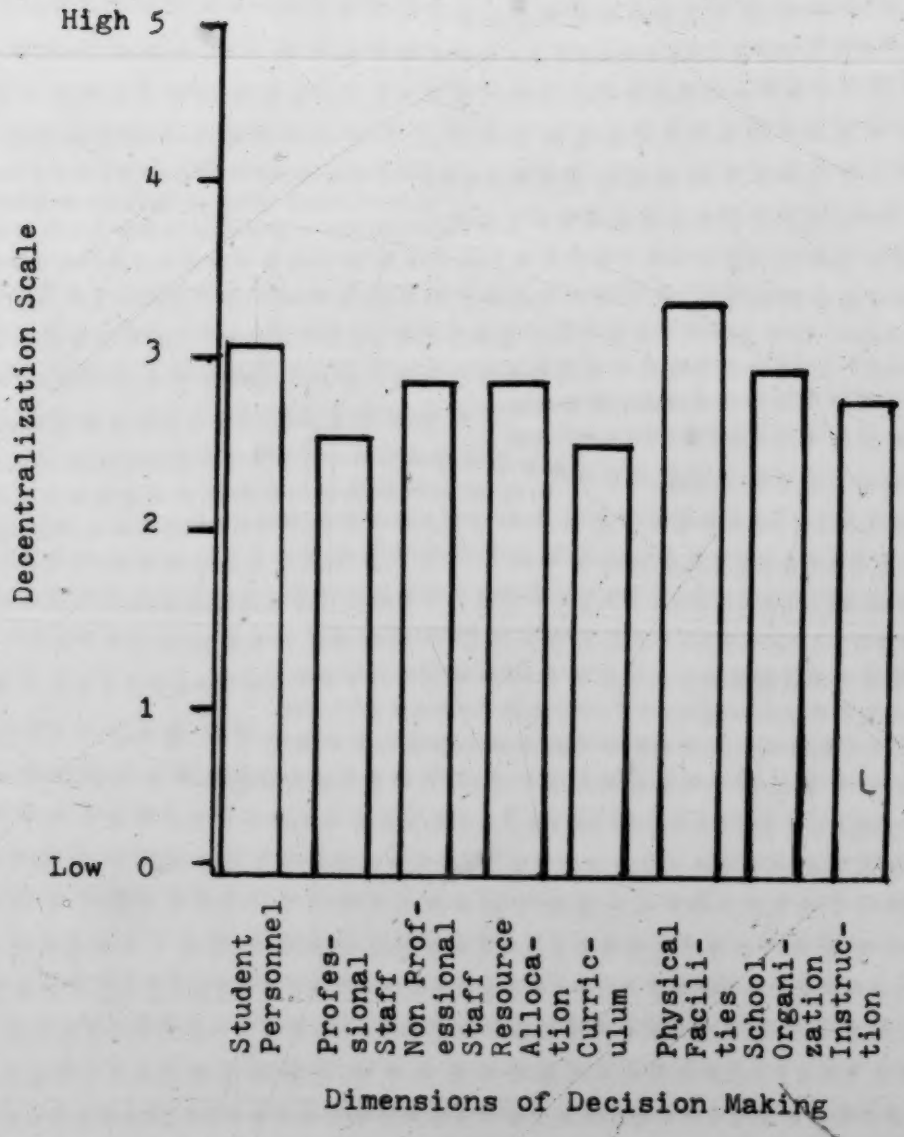

Figure 5

Comparison of Preferred Dimensions of Decision Making According to Mean Scores on the Decentralization Scale

Four dimensions - School Organization, Non-Professional Staff Personnel Resource Allocation and Instruction exhibit mean scores on the Decentralization Scale within the range of means 2.7 to 2.9. This seems to indicate an intermediate degree of decentralization for these decisions. According to Table 8 the School is the preferred source of decision making for three of the four School Organization decisions (8,13,23) while shared decision making between the School Board, the School, and the School/Community is preferred for decision 9. The School is also the preferred source for the four Non-Professional Staff Personnel decisions (5,14,28,32) as well as the four Instruction decisions (3,19,24,27). Shared decision making between the School Board, the School and the School/Community is preferred for the four Resource Allocation decisions (2,9,20,22). The Department of Education was also included in decision 2.

Two dimensions, Professional Staff Personnel and Curriculum exhibit mean preferred scores of 2.5 on the Decentralization Scale. This seems to indicate a general merging of centralized and decentralized decision making for these decisions. Table 8 confirms a general sharing of decision making between the Department of Education, the School Board, the School, and the School/Community for the four Professional Staff Personnel decisions (4,10,21,25). This also seems to be generally the case for the four Curriculum decisions (7,11,16,17).

Levels of decision making. Figure 6 provides a comparison of the four levels of decision making according to the mean scale score for each level. As indicated, all of the levels showed a similar degree of decentralizarion. Three possible reasons are suggested for this similarity.

1. The respondents had no preferences with regard to the degree of decentralization for specific levels of decision making.

2. The respondents were more concerned with the content (dimensions) of the decisions than with the method of arriving at them (level).

3. The decisions within the survey did not clearly differentiate between levels of decision making.

Other groupings. An examination of Table 8 seems to indicate the presence of two other factors which affect the groupings of decisions at each source of decision making:

1. Expertise - the School and, to a lesser extent, the School Board, tended to be the preferred source of decision making for decisions requiring substantial expertise in educational and school related activities. In contrast, those decisions in which the respondents indicated a desire for some measure of community participation generally required a minimum of such expertise.

2. Coordination - the School Board was the preferred source of decision making for those decisions requiring coordination or standardization among schools. In contrast, the School was preferred for those decisions related to the activities of a single school.

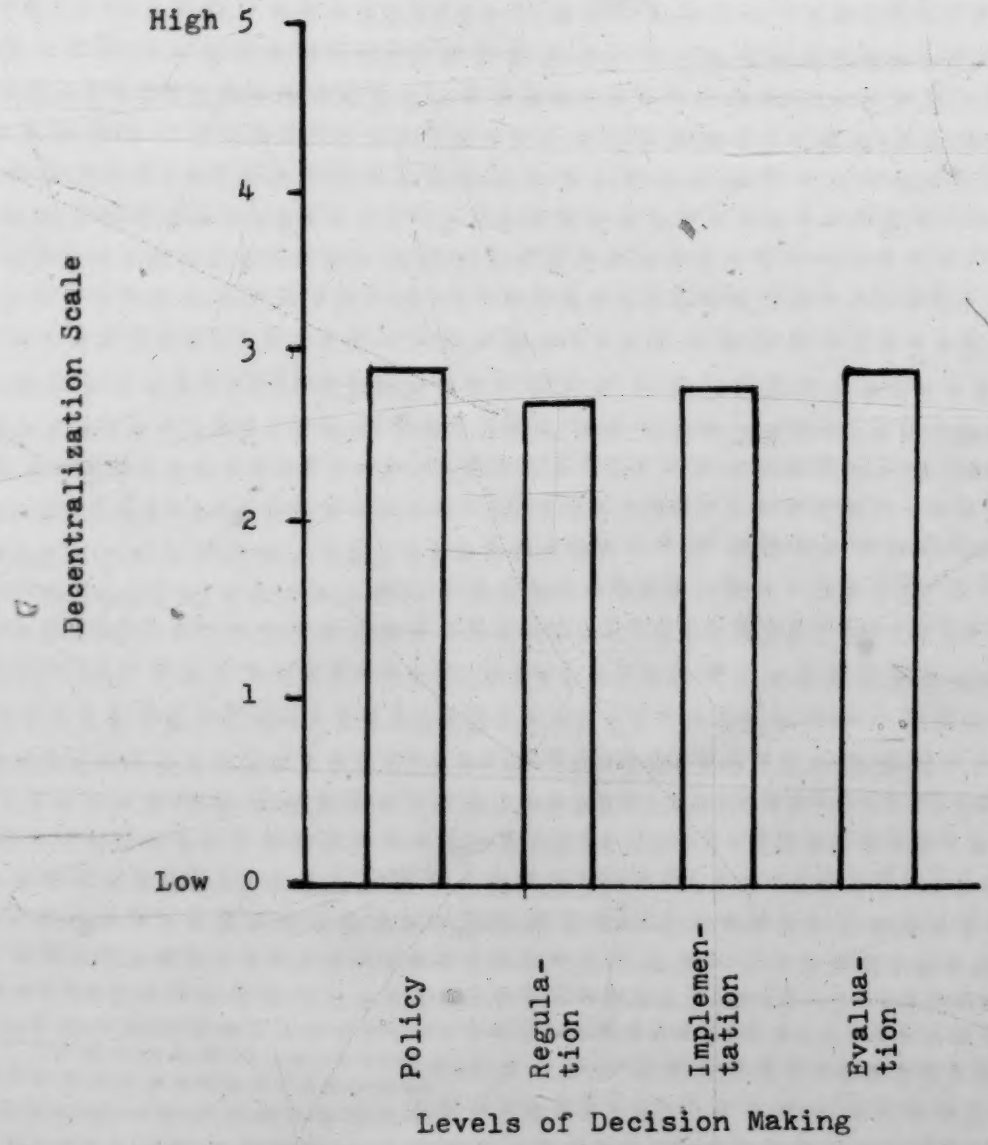

Figure 6

Comparison of Preferred Levels of Decision Making
According to Mean Scores on the Decentralization Scale

Comparison of Actual and Preferred Responses

Two methods of analysis were utilized in order to compare the actual and preferred sources of decision making:

1. Comparison of actual and preferred mean scores for each decision and for groups of decisions.

2. Comparison of actual and preferred response frequencies.

In order to determine significant differences between actual and preferred decision making sources, the mean scores on the Decentralization Scale were subjected to a T-Test. A .01 level of probability was chosen as the criterion of significance.

As indicated in Table 9 , only three of the thirty-two decisions failed to exhibit a significant increase between the actual and preferred sources of decision making (5,14, 23) The remaining twenty-nine exhibited a significant increase from the actual to the preferred mean score. This seems to indicate an overall trend towards decentralization of decision making on the part of the respondents. This is further illustrated by a comparison of the total actual mean score and the total preferred mean score, as shown in Figure 7.

A further comparison of the percentage of total responses at each source as shown in Figure 8 , allows a more comprehensive view of this trend. Of the five sources of decision making, the School/Community exhibits the greatest

Table 9

Comparison of Actual and Preferred Mean Scores for 32 Decisions

#	Decision	Act. Mean	Pref. Mean	Mean Diff.	T.	DF	Prob.
31	Changing the use of those school facilities that are not being used appropriately or efficiently.	2.17	3.25	1.08	8.17	63	0.000
26	Designing general policies for the use of school facilities.	2.26	3.29	1.03	7.65	63	0.000
18	Making regulations regarding effective use of the gym.	2.53	3.50	.97	9.64	63	0.000
3	Setting general goals of instruction.	1.71	2.65	.94	6.38	63	0.000
19	Determining the desired methods of classroom instruction.	1.95	2.85	.90	6.78	63	0.000
13	Determining the number and types of classes within the school.	2.00	2.89	.89	6.72	63	0.000
9	Specifying areas of priority for school expenditures.	2.00	2.83	.83	6.58	63	0.000
2	Determining the amount of money to be spent on specific subjects.	1.91	2.69	.78	5.36	63	0.000
7	Determining the content of each subject.	1.55	2.34	.79	5.08	63	0.000
22	Determining how wisely money is spent.	2.29	3.07	.78	5.46	63	0.000
16	Determining the general subject areas to be taught.	1.67	2.42	.75	5.46	63	0.000

Table 9 (continued)

#	Decision	Act. Mean	Pref. Mean	Mean Diff.	T.	DF	Prob.
21	Hiring and discharging teachers.	2.00	2.73	.73	6.16	63	0.000
24	Evaluating the way each teacher relates to his or her class.	2.37	3.10	.73	6.67	63	0.000
4	Evaluating teachers with regard to their ability and efficiency.	1.87	2.59	.72	5.29	63	0.000
11	Choosing textbooks and other curriculum materials.	1.66	2.37	.71	4.68	63	0.000
1	Setting general standards of behavior for students.	2.79	3.50	.71	4.60	63	0.000
12	Periodically evaluating discipline measures taken.	2.32	3.00	.68	4.70	63	0.000
25	Setting the desired requirements for prospective teaching staff.	1.82	2.48	.66	4.47	63	0.000
17	Determining how efficiently curriculum materials are used.	2.14	2.71	.57	4.02	63	0.000
20	Administering the school budget.	2.23	2.77	.54	4.75	63	0.000
29	Setting general policies for organizing the school.	2.38	2.92	.54	4.46	63	0.000
8	Determining improvements in use of A-V equipment.	2.09	2.61	.52	3.77	63	0.000
30	Making rules for promotion and failure of students.	2.13	2.64	.51	3.52	63	0.000

Table 9 (continued)

#	Decision	Act. Mean	Pref. Mean	Mean Diff.	T.	DF	Prob.
28	Setting school requirements for hiring of non-teaching staff.	2.24	2.72	.48	4.61	63	0.000
6	Scheduling the use of the gym during school hours.	2.85	3.30	.45	5.53	63	0.000
15	Prescribing discipline for individual students.	2.87	3.29	.42	5.41	63	0.000
10	Preparing job descriptions for teachers.	1.82	2.22	.40	3.56	63	0.001
32	Hiring and discharging secretarial and caretaking staff.	2.42	2.82	.40	4.49	63	0.000
27	Instituting a system of classroom testing.	1.92	2.28	.36	2.80	63	0.007
14	Rating the efficiency of the caretaking staff.	2.70	2.90	.20	1.96	63	0.055*
23	Assigning staff members to specific non-teaching duties.	2.84	3.02	.18	2.10	63	0.040*
5	Preparing a list of duties for the caretaking staff.	2.58	2.72	.14	1.83	63	0.072*

* not significant at the .01 level

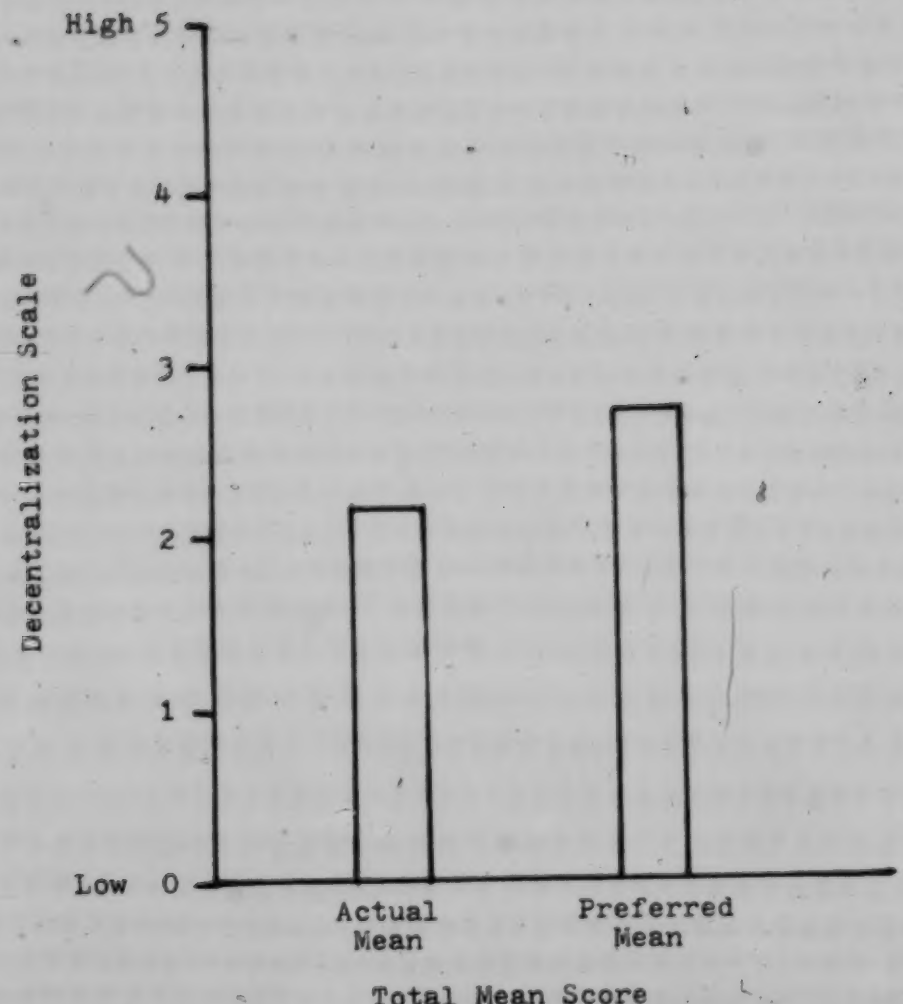

Figure 7

Comparison of Actual and Preferred
Total Mean Scores for 32 Decisions

increase in percentage of total responses, followed by the School. Conversely, both the Department of Education and The School Board exhibit a substantial decrease in the percentage of total responses. The Community shows virtually no change.

From the point of view of this study, the substantial increase in the percentage of total responses for the School/Community as a source of educational decision making is significant. Figure 8 indicates that although the respondents are of the opinion that actual School/Community decision making is minimal they have a higher preference for it than they do for either the School Board or the Department of Education.

The minimal increase in the percentage of responses to the Community as a source of decision making, as illustrated in Figure 8, is also highly significant to this study. It is a clear indication that the respondents do not favour Community control over educational decision making.

A rank ordering of the thirty-two decisions according to their mean difference is included in Table 9. In essence it represents the priorities of the respondents regarding the decentralization of decision making. Those decisions listed first show the greatest difference and therefore demand the greatest degree of change, while those listed last show the least difference and demand the least change.

In general, those decisions which appear high on the mean difference scale also tend to appear high on the preference scale as well. Notable exceptions to this are

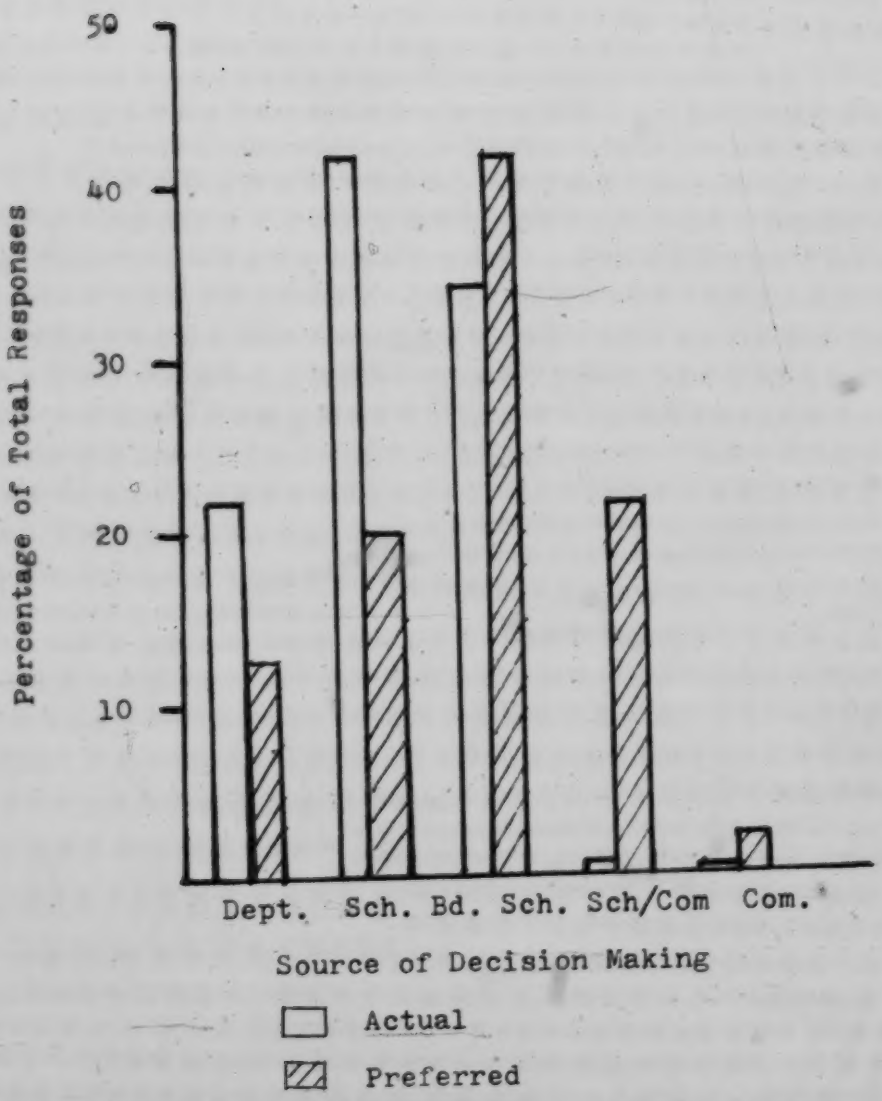

Figure 8

Comparison of Total Actual and Preferred Response Frequencies for Each Source of Decision Making

decisions 6 and 15. Both exhibit a preferred mean score greater than 3.0 and a mean difference less than 0.5. This seems to indicate that the respondents perceived that these decisions were already relatively decentralized but preferred an even greater degree of decentralization.

Comparison of actual and preferred dimensions of decision making. Two methods were utilized to compare the actual and preferred dimensions of decision making discussed in Chapter I.

1. Determination of those decisions within each dimension that tended to cluster within a relatively narrow range of mean differences.

2. Comparison of actual and preferred total mean scores for each dimension.

3. Comparison of response frequencies for specific decisions.

Although each decision exhibits an increase between actual and preferred mean scores, the mean difference varies from a low of .14 to a high of 1.08. Further, most decisions, when grouped according to the eight dimensions of decision making, tend to cluster together within specific ranges of mean differences. An examination of Table 9, indicates the following clusters:

1. Three of the four decisions regarding Physical Facilities (18,26,31) cluster within the range of mean differences .97 to 1.03. The fourth (6) shows a much

smaller mean difference due to the fact that the respondents rated it very high on the actual scale but equivalent to the others on the preference scale.

2. Three of the four Resource Allocation decisions (2, 9,22) cluster within the range of mean differences .78 to .83. The fourth decision (20) shows a smaller mean difference due to the fact that a substantial percentage of respondents preferred to retain School Board control over this decision, as indicated in Table 8.

3. Three of the four decisions regarding Curriculum (7,11,16) cluster within the range of mean differences .71 to .79. The fourth (17) shows a much smaller mean difference due to the fact that the respondents rated it higher on the actual scale than the other three decisions.

4. Three of the four decisions regarding Professional Staff Personnel (4,21,25) cluster within the range of mean differences .66 to .73. The fourth (10) shows a much smaller mean difference due to the fact that a substantial percentage of the respondents preferred to retain Department of Education control over this decision, as indicated in Table 8.

5. Two of the decisions regarding Instruction (3,19) cluster near the top of the scale within the range of mean differences .90 to .94. The third (24) shows a mean difference of .73, also relatively high on the scale. The fourth (27) shows a very low mean difference. This is due to the high percentage of respondents who preferred to retain

Department of Education control over this decision, as indicated in Table 8.

6. Three of the four decisions regarding Non-Professional Staff Personnel (5,14,32) cluster within the range of mean differences .14 to .40. As already indicated, the mean differences for decisions 5 and 14 were not significant at the .01 level, as shown in Table 9. The fourth decision (28) also shows a relatively low mean difference.

The above clusters exhibit varying degrees of discrepancy between actual and preferred means among the eight dimensions of decision making. Two dimensions - Physical Facilities and Instruction - show a generally high discrepancy, indicating that the respondents perceived these as high priorities for decentralization. Three dimensions - Resource Allocation, Curriculum and Professional Staff Personnel - represent an intermediate level of priorities for decentralization. One dimension - Non-Professional Staff Personnel - represents a low priority for decentralization. The remaining two dimensions - Student Personnel and School Organization and Structure - do not cluster at any specific point.

A further analysis of the total mean increase for each dimension, as illustrated in Figure 9, substantially confirms the previous findings. All dimensions exhibited a significant mean increase at a .01 level of probability. The following results are indicated:

1. One dimension - Physical Facilities - shows a mean

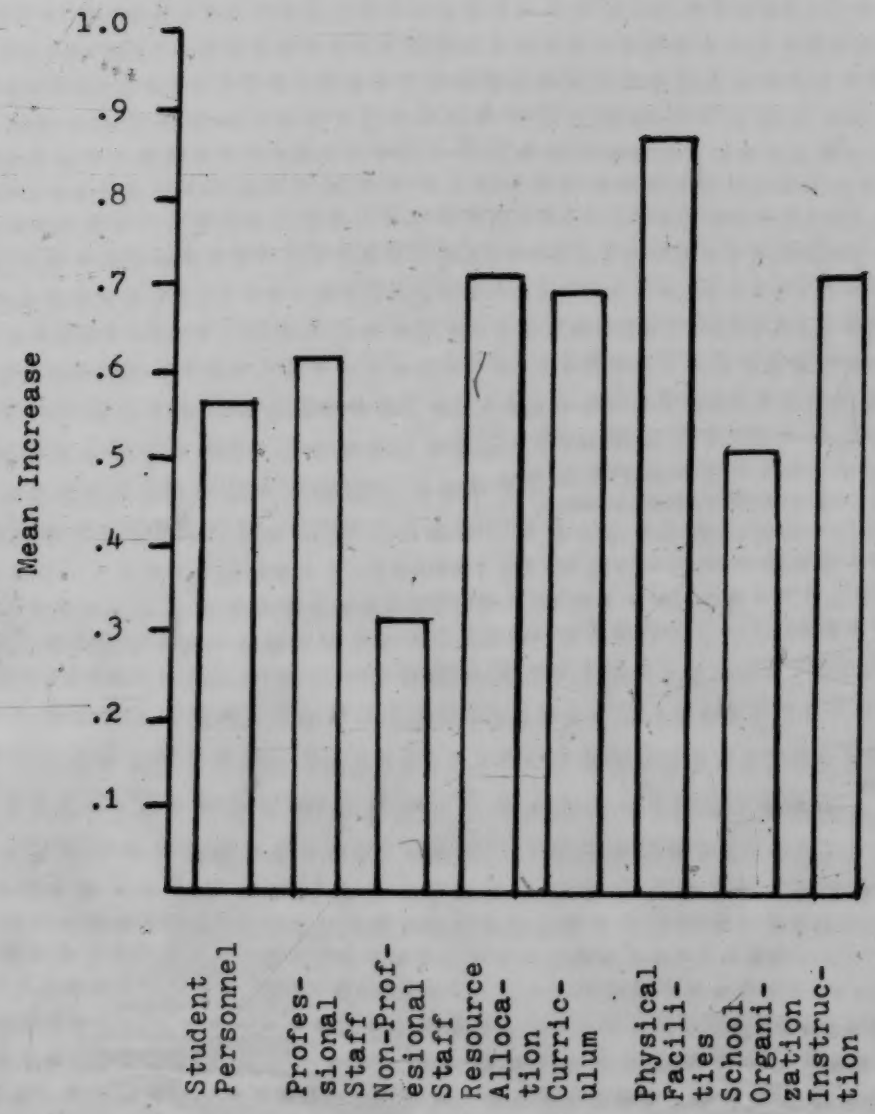

Figure 9

Comparison of Mean Increases for Each Dimension of Decision Making

increase greater than .8. This represents the respondents' first priority for decentralization.

2. Three dimensions - Resource Allocation, Instruction and Curriculum - show a mean increase between .7 and .8. These represent a second priority for decentralization.

3. Two dimensions - Student Personnel and School Organization and Structure - show a mean increase between .5 and .7. These represent a third priority for decentralization.

4. One dimension - Non-Professional Staff Personnel - shows a mean increase between .3 and .5. This represents a low priority for decentralization.

Comparison of actual and preferred levels of decision making. Three methods were utilized to compare the actual and preferred levels of decision making discussed in Chapter I.

1. Determination of those decisions within each level that tended to cluster within a relatively narrow range of mean differences.

2. Comparison of actual and preferred total mean scores for each level.

3. Comparison of response frequencies for specific decisions.

Although the decisions relating to level do not cluster as readily as those relating to dimension, the following general groupings can be detected:

1. A general clustering of the majority of Policy and Regulation decisions occurs within the higher range of mean differences .66 to 1.08.

2. A general clustering of the majority of Evaluation decisions occurs within the intermediate range of mean differences .52 to .78.

3. A general clustering of the majority of Implementation decisions occurs at the lower range of mean differences .36 to .72.

The above results seem to indicate that the respondents desire the greatest increase in decentralization at the Policy and Regulation levels, less at the Evaluation level and least at the Implementation level.

A further analysis of the total mean increase for each level, as illustrated in Figure 10, generally confirms the previous findings. All levels exhibited a significant mean increase at a .01 level of probability. The results indicate the greatest increase in decentralization at the Policy level, less at the Regulation and Evaluation levels and the least at the Implementation level.

Summary

In this chapter we have examined the major findings of this study. No relationship was found to exist between the attitudes of the respondents and any of the demographic variables examined. An analysis of the actual and preferred responses indicated a significant trend towards decentralization for most decisions.

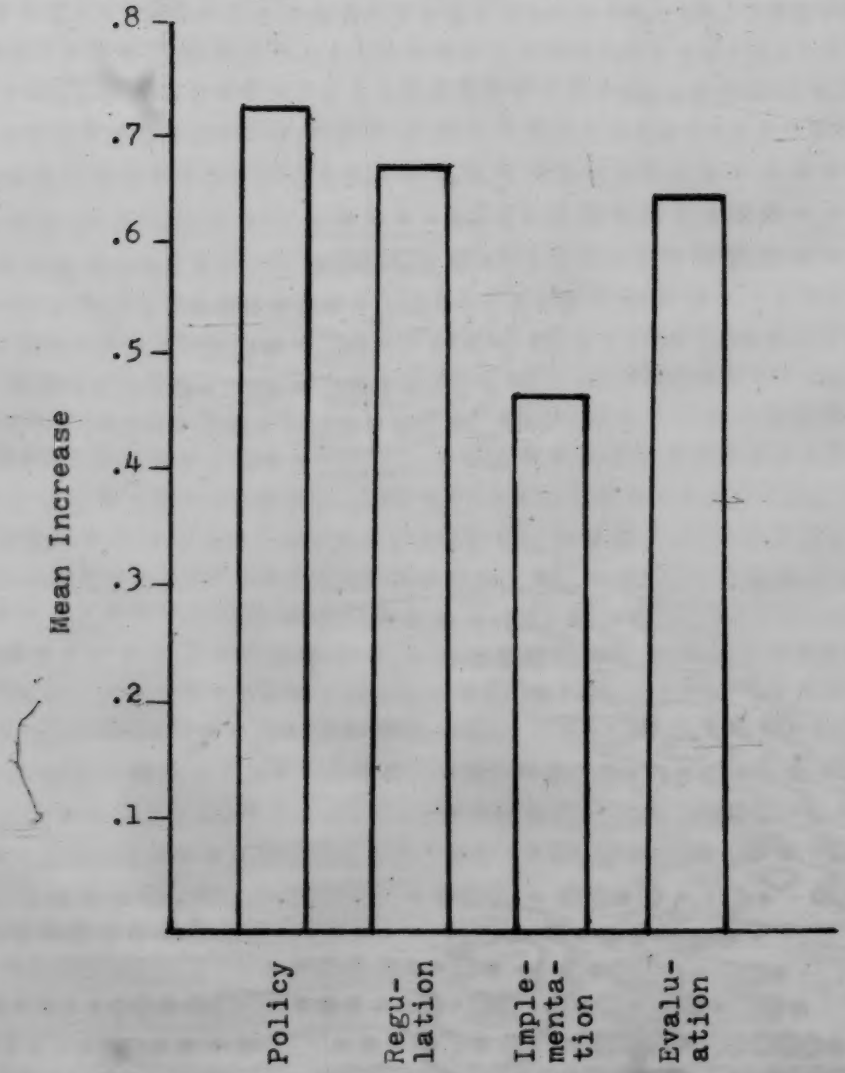

Figure 10

Comparison of Mean Increases for Each Level of Decision Making

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Statement of Problem

The central problem in this study was to assess the overall attitudes of the public regarding the major sources of educational decision making and to determine the extent of support for the community as a source of decision making.

Summary of Results

An analysis of the data indicates the following results:

1. A relatively small proportion of the respondents were or had been involved in educational decision making of any kind.

2. A relatively small proportion of the respondents were or had been involved with school or community activities of any kind.

3. A relatively large proportion of the respondents were in favor of increased community participation at all levels of public education.

4. The respondents generally perceived the School Board to be the primary source of educational decision making, followed by the School and the Department of Education.

5. The respondents generally perceived that the

Community was not involved in educational decision making to any extent.

6. The respondents generally preferred the School to be the primary source of decision making, followed by the School/Community, the School Board and the Department of Education.

7. The respondents did not show a preference for the Community as a source of decision making for any of the decisions presented.

8. The respondents generally exhibited a preference for School/Community participation in those decisions related to Physical Facilities and Student Personnel.

9. The respondents generally preferred the School as the source of decision making for decisions related to Instruction, Non-Professional Staff Personnel, and School Organization and Structure.

10. The respondents generally preferred shared decision making between the Department of Education, the School Board, the School, and the School/Community for those decisions related to Resource Allocation, Professional Staff Personnel, and Curriculum.

11. The respondents indicated a significant preference for more decentralization of educational decision making.

12. The respondents indicated a desire for increased School/Community participation in educational decision making.

Conclusions

On the basis of the results, and subject to the limitations and assumptions delineated in Chapter I, the following conclusions can be made:

1. There is no significant relationship between the attitudes of the respondents about sources of educational decision making and any of the following variables:

a. Sex
b. Age
c. Level of educational attainment
d. Children attending school
e. Type of school children attend
f. Teaching experience
g. School decision making experience
h. School Advisory Committee experience
i. Kindergarten Advisory Committee experience
j. Continuing Education Council experience
k. Extent of school involvement
l. Extent of community involvement
m. Willingness to spend time in educational decision making
n. Presence of a community school in the area

2. There is a definite desire for increased decentralization of educational decision making. Further, the School is preferred as the primary source of educational decision making.

3. There seems to be a relationship between the various preferred sources of decision making and specific types of decisions. Generally, the School is preferred as the primary source of decision making for those decisions requiring a high degree of expertise. Consequently, the School

is the preferred source for decisions relating to Instruction, Resource Allocation, School Organization and Structure, and Non-Professional Staff Personnel. Conversely, a high degree of School/Community participation is preferred for those decisions not requiring a high degree of expertise, such as Physical Facilities and Student Personnel. This tends to confirm Litwak and Meyer's (1974) theory of expert and non-expert tasks, as outlined in Chapter III. Essentially it emphasizes a balance between the formal organization for the performance of expert tasks and the informal organization for the performance of non-expert tasks.

It was also found that the more centralized sources, or a combination of sources were preferred for those decisions requiring coordination and/or standardization among schools. Consequently, shared decision making between the Department of Education, The School Board, the School, and, to a lesser extent, the School/Community is preferred for decisions relating to Resource Allocation, Curriculum, and Professional Staff Personnel. This tends to disaffirm the belief, common to many proponents of community control, that these three dimensions should be controlled by the Community.

With regard to the four levels of decision making, it was found that the respondents did not differentiate among them to any extent. If this is the case, it also disaffirms the belief that the community desires more extensive control over Evaluation and Implementation decisions.

4. The results generally confirm Ryan's (1972) conclusion, presented in Chapter III, that the public does not desire an active role in school governance. Rather, the results of this study indicate that the public desires increased participation in various aspects of educational decision making. In terms of Arnstein's (1969) Ladder of Citizen Participation (Table 1), the study indicates that the public desires neither 'Citizen Control' or 'Delegated Power.' It does, though, indicate a desire for a degree of 'Partnership' in educational decision making.

Implications

The findings of the present study appear to suggest certain implications for educators and the need for further study in specific areas.

Educators. This study points out the need for not only involving the community in the decision making process, but for involving a greater proportion of the community in decision making activities. It also points out the need to recognize those areas of decision making in which the community desires involvement and encourage meaningful participation in them.

Further study. This study involved a very general approach to the question of community participation in educational decision making. The results have indicated a need for a much more intensive study of the following areas:

1. Dimensions of educational decision making. Those used in this study were in no way inclusive of all dimensions. It was found, for instance, that the whole concept of testing tended to elicit different responses than others included in the same group.

2. Levels of educational decision making. In the present study, each decision represented both a dimension and a level of decision making. It was felt that the respondents tended to make their choices on the basis of the dimension rather than the level of decision making. Consequently, a further study of this area is recommended.

3. The sample. The limited sample did not allow the researcher to do a comparative study of various communities. It is possible that such a comparison would indicate significant differences in attitudes. For instance, various studies indicate that lower socio-economic areas tend to desire a high degree of community control. Such a study would be useful.

4. Scope. The study was limited in scope to the City of Edmonton. Comparative studies in other areas, especially suburban and rural areas, would provide useful information.

5. Degree of participation. Although the study indicated a desire on the part of the public for participation in educational decision making, it was not designed to measure the degree of participation desired. Such a study would provide important information in this area.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Allison, G. Essence of Decision: Explaining the Cuban Missile crisis. Boston: Little, Brown, 1971.

Allison, Howard C. "Professional and Lay Influences on School Board Decision Making." Unpublished PhD dissertation, University of Chicago, 1965.

Anderson, Henry Norman. "An Empirical Study of Authoritarianism, Bureaucratic Role Orientation, and Perceptions of Positional Authority in School Organizations." Unpublished PhD dissertation, University of Alberta, 1968.

Angus, Iain. "Getting the Community Into School: Community Involvement." Learning Resources, 1973, 1, 18-19.

Arnstein, Sherry R. "A Ladder of Citizen Participation." American Institute of Planners, 1969, 35, 216-224.

Barnard, Chester I. The Functions of the Executive. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1938 (revised 1960).

Boyd, William L. and David W. O'Shea. "Theoretical Perspectives on School Decentralization." Education and Urban Society, 1975, 4, 357-375.

Bride, K.W. "Public Attitudes Toward Schools in Lethbridge Division No. 7." Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Alberta, 1962.

Brimacombe, A.K. "The Construction of a Scale to Measure Adult Attitudes Toward the Alberta Educational System." Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Alberta, 1957.

Callbeck, E.G., ed. Direction for Education: Report of the Elementary School Progress Commission of the Public School Board, Calgary, 1965-67.

Campbell, Ronald F., John E. Corbally, and John A Ramseyer. Introduction to Educational Administration. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1962.

Carson, Robert E., ed. Seminar Series for School Administrators. Dept. of Educational Administration, Faculty of Education, University of Calgary, 1968.

Cibulka, James G. "School Decentralization in Chicago." Education and Urban Society, 1975, 7, 412-438.

Cronin, Joseph M. The Control of Urban Schools. New York: The Free Press, 1973.

Durocher, R. "Making Way for Parents." The Catholic Trustee, 1975, 15, 2-4.

Earle, John A. "Influences for Innovations in School Systems." Unpublished PhD dissertation, University of Alberta, 1968.

Fantini, Mario, and Marilyn Gittell. "The Ocean Hill-Brownsville Experiment." Phi Delta Kappan, 1969, 50, 442-445.

Fein, Leonard J. The Ecology of the Public Schools. New York: Pegasus, 1971.

Giles, T.E. Educational Administration in Canada. Calgary: Detselig Enterprises, 1974.

Green, Duncan. "The Involvement of the Public in Education: A Major Development." Education Canada, 1974, 14, 42-51.

Hodgson, Ernest. "Community Schools." Symposium Series /2, The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1972, May, 59-74.

Ingram, E.J. "Public Attitudes Toward Educaion as a Basis for a Public Relations Program." Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Alberta, 1962.

Keen, Edward Williams. "Some Relationships in the Composition of School Board Decisions." Unpublished PhD dissertation, University of Illinois, 1963.

Kupfer, George. "Social Control: Necessary Intervention." Social Problems and the Schools, Banff Regional Conference, Dept. of Educational Administration, Faculty of Education, University of Alberta, 1969, 2-14.

Langlois, Herve. "Tommorros's Objectives in Education." 31st Annual Convention of the Canadian School Trustees Association, 1972, 49-56.

Larson, O.P. "Accountability Through Involving Lay and Professional Groups." Education Canada, 1973, 13, 22-29.

Levin, Henry M., ed. Community Control of Schools. Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution, 1970.

Litwak, Eugene, and Henry J. Meyer. School, Family and Neighborhood: The Theory and Practice of School-Community Relations. New York: Columbia University Press, 1974.

Lyke, Robert F. "Suburban School Politics." Unpublished PhD dissertation, Yale University, 1968.

Miller, P.J. "Professionalism and Demands For Accountability in Education: An Historical Perspective." The New Demands On Education. Dept. of Educational Administration, Faculty of Education, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1972, 2-26.

O'Shea, David. "School District Decentralization - The Case of Los Angeles." Education and Urban Society, 1975, 4, 377-392.

O'Shea, David W. Urban Control: What Can We Learn From The Suburban Experience? ERIC Document Ed 105 035, March, 1975.

Parsons, Tim. "The Community School Movement." Community Issues, 1970, 2, 1-79.

Pilo, Marvin R. "A Tale of Two Cities: The Application of Models of School Decentralization to the Cases of New York City and Detroit." Education and Urban Society, 1975, 7, 393-411.

Pomfret, A. "Parents in Schools: Toward Developing A Social Intervention Technology." Interchange, 1972, 3, 114-130.

Richards, Max D., and Paul S. Greenlaw. Management Decision Making. Homewood, Ill.: Richard D. Irwin Inc., 1966.

Ryan, Doris W. "Student and Parental Expectations for Secondary School Education." The Canadian Administrator, 1972, 12, 7-12.

Saunders, Robert E. "Community Councils and Community Schools-A Position Paper." The Headmaster, 1973, Spring, 21-27.

Saxe, Richard. School - Community Interaction. Berkley, California: McCutcheon, 1975.

Simon, Herbert A. Administrative Behavior. New York: Macmillan, 1961.

Simpkins, William Stewart. "The Distribution of Decision Making Authority in the School." Unpublished PhD Dissertation, University of Alberta, 1968.

Summerfield, Harry L. The Neighborhood-Based Politics of Education. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1971.

Thomas, Michael P. Community Governance and the School Board - A Case Study. Austin, Texas: University of Texas, 1967.

Thompson, J.D. Organizations in Action. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967.

"The Trend to Community Involvement in the Schools". Educational Courier, January, 1975, 5-19.

Yates, D. Organizational Democracy. Lexington, Mass.: Lexington Books, 1973.

Zaleznik, Abraham, and David Moment. The Dynamics of Interpersonal Behavior. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Zeigler, L. Harmon, and Kent Jennings. Governing American Schools: Political Interaction in Local School Districts. North Scituate, Mass.: Duxbury Press, 1974.

APPENDIX

THE SURVEY

COMMUNITY SURVEY

THIS IS A SURVEY BEING CARRIED OUT IN THE EDMONTON AREA TO OBTAIN THE OPINIONS OF PARENTS AND OTHER COMMUNITY MEMBERS REGARDING EDUCATIONAL DECISION MAKING IN THE SCHOOLS.

PLEASE RESTRICT YOUR RESPONSES TO THE SCHOOL OR SCHOOLS WITHIN YOUR COMMUNITY OR AREA THAT YOU ARE MOST FAMILIAR WITH.

ALL RESPONSES ARE CONFIDENTIAL AND WILL BE USED BY THE RESEARCHER TO COMPILE GENERAL STATISTICS FOR THE EDMONTON AREA.

THE SURVEY CONTAINS TWO SECTIONS TO BE COMPLETED:

SECTION I - PERSONAL INFORMATION

SECTION II- OPINIONS ABOUT PREFERRED AND ACTUAL SOURCES OF DECISION MAKING.

SECTION I - PERSONAL INFORMATION

PLEASE ANSWER EACH QUESTION BELOW BY PLACING A CHECK MARK (✓) IN THE APPROPRIATE SPACE UNLESS OTHERWISE SPECIFIED.

1.	Sex	Male	( )
		Female	( )
2.	Age	Less than 21	( )
		21 - 30	( )
		31 - 40	( )
		More than 40	( )
3.	What is the occupation of the chief wage earner in the family? (If there are two, please list both)	a) _____	
		b) _____	
4.	What level of education did you attain?	Gd.6 or less	( )
		Gd.7 - 9	( )
		Gd.10 -12	( )
		Beyond gd. 12	( )
5.	Have you had any children attending school at any time during the last ten years?	Yes	( )
		No	( )
6.	Do you presently have any children attending school?	Yes	( )
		No	( )
7.	If you answered YES in question six, please specify the grade levels.	Kindergarten	( )
		Gd. 1 - 6	( )
		Gd. 7 - 9	( )
		Gd. 10 - 12	( )
		Beyond gd.12	( )
8.	If you answered YES in question six, which type of school do your children attend?	Public	( )
		Separate	( )
		Private	( )
9.	Are you or have you ever been a teacher?	Yes	( )
		No	( )
10.	Have you ever, individually or as part of a group, made decisions affecting the school?	Yes	( )
		No	( )
11.	Are you or have you ever been a member of an advisory committee for a particular school?	Yes	( )
		No	( )

SECTION I - PERSONAL INFORMATION (CON)

12.	Are you or have you been a member of a kindergarten local advisory council?	Yes No	( ) ( )
13.	Are you or have you been a member of a continuing education council?	Yes No	( ) ( )
14.	Do you frequently take part in school functions?	Yes No	( ) ( )
15.	Do you play an active part in community affairs?	Yes No	( ) ( )
16.	How many hours a week would you be prepared to spend in order to take part in school decision making?	None 1 - 3 hours 4 - 6 hours 7 - 10 hours	( ) ( ) ( ) ( )
17.	Is there a designated <u>community school</u> in your community or area?	Yes No	( ) ( )

SECTION II - EDUCATIONAL DECISIONS

IN THIS SECTION YOU ARE ASKED TO INDICATE YOUR OPINIONS ABOUT THE MAKING OF EDUCATIONAL DECISIONS IN SCHOOLS. 32 COMMON SCHOOL DECISIONS ARE LISTED. EACH DECISION REQUIRES TWO SEPARATE RESPONSES:

1. YOUR OPINION AS A PARENT OR COMMUNITY MEMBER ABOUT WHO MAKES THE ACTUAL DECISION AT THE PRESENT TIME.

2. YOUR PREFERENCE AS A PARENT OR COMMUNITY MEMBER ABOUT WHO SHOULD MAKE THE DECISION.

EACH RESPONSE INVOLVES A CHOICE OF FOUR POSSIBLE SOURCES OF DECISION MAKING:

(B) THE SCHOOL BOARD - TRUSTEES WHO ARE ELECTED FROM THE CITY AS A WHOLE TO GOVERN THE SCHOOL SYSTEM (PUBLIC OR SEPARATE)

(S) THE SCHOOL - ALL PERSONNEL WHO ARE DIRECTLY ASSOCIATED WITH THE SCHOOL. THIS INCLUDES ADMINISTRATORS, TEACHERS AND CENTRAL OFFICE STAFF.

(C) THE COMMUNITY - REPRESENTATIVES OF THE COMMUNITY OR AREA IN WHICH THE SCHOOL IS LOCATED. THIS INCLUDES PARENTS AND OTHER COMMUNITY MEMBERS ELECTED OR APPOINTED FROM THE COMMUNITY.

(E) THE SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY - EQUAL REPRESENTATION FROM THE SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY. FOR INSTANCE, A COMMITTEE MADE UP OF SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY REPRESENTATIVES.

INSTRUCTIONS

FOR EACH DECISION LISTED, CIRCLE ONE OF THE FOUR LETTERS (B,S,C,E) IN THE ACTUAL COLUMN AND ONE OF THE FOUR LETTERS (B,S,C,E) IN THE PREFERRED COLUMN.

KEY (SEE EXPLANATION OF EACH ABOVE)

B - SCHOOL BOARD S - SCHOOL C - COMMUNITY

E - EQUAL REPRESENTATION FROM THE SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

EXAMPLE

DECISION	ACTUAL	PREFERRED
a. Making rules regarding student dress and appearance.	B (S) C E	B S (C) E

THE ABOVE EXAMPLE INDICATES THAT THE INDIVIDUAL WHO ANSWERED IT BELIEVES THAT RULES REGARDING STUDENT DRESS AND APPEARANCE ARE ACTUALLY DECISIONS MADE BY THE SCHOOL (S). HE PREFERS THAT THEY BE MADE BY THE COMMUNITY (C).

PLEASE COMPLETE THE REMAINING SECTION BELOW

1. Setting general standards of behavior for students.	B S C E	B S C E
2. Determining the amount of money to be spent on specific subjects.	B S C E	B S C E
3. Setting general goals of instruction.	B S C E	B S C E
4. Evaluating teachers with regard to their ability and efficiency.	B S C E	B S C E
5. Preparing a list of duties for the caretaking staff.	B S C E	B S C E
6. Scheduling the use of the gymnasium during and after school hours.	B S C E	B S C E
7. Determining the content of each subject taught.	B S C E	B S C E
8. Determining improvements in the use of audio-visual equipment.	B S C E	B S C E
9. Specifying areas of priority for school expenditures.	B S C E	B S C E
10. Preparing job descriptions for teachers.	B S C E	B S C E
11. Choosing textbooks and other curriculum materials.	B S C E	B S C E

SECTION II - EDUCATIONAL DECISIONS (CON.)

DECISION	ACTUAL	PREFERRED
12. Periodically evaluating discipline measures taken in the school	B S C E	B S C E
13. Determining the number and types of classes within the school.	B S C E	B S C E
14. Rating the efficiency of the school caretaking staff.	B S C E	B S C E
15. Prescribing discipline for individual students.	B S C E	B S C E
16. Determining the general subject areas to be taught in the school.	B S C E	B S C E
17. Determining how efficiently curriculum materials are used in the school.	B S C E	B S C E
18. Making regulations governing the use of the gymnasium during the day.	B S C E	B S C E
19. Determining the desired methods of classroom instruction.	B S C E	B S C E
20. Administering the school budget.	B S C E	B S C E
21. Hiring and discharging teachers and/or administrators.	B S C E	B S C E
22. Determining how wisely money is spent in the school.	B S C E	B S C E
23. Assigning staff members to specific non-teaching duties.	B S C E	B S C E
24. Evaluating the way each teacher relates to his or her class.	B S C E	B S C E

SECTION II - EDUCATIONAL DECISIONS (CON.)

DECISION	ACTUAL	PREFERRED
25. Setting the desired requirements for prospective teaching staff.	B S C E	B S C E
26. Designing general policies for the use of school facilities.	B S C E	B S C E
27. Instituting a system of classroom testing.	B S C E	B S C E
28. Setting school requirements for the hiring of non-teaching staff.	B S C E	B S C E
29. Setting general policies for organizing the school.	B S C E	B S C E
30. Making rules for the promotion and failure of students.	B S C E	B S C E
31. Changing the use of those school facilities that are not being used appropriately or efficiently.	B S C E	B S C E
32. Hiring and discharging secretarial and caretaking staff.	B S C E	B S C E